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OF THE LANGUAGE OF MADAGASCAR.

The following particulars were transcribed at the wish of the late Lord Daer, who thought of communicating them at the Society for the Improvement of African Geography. The author desires to preserve them in your Miscellany.

TO those who ambition the improvement of African geography, it may not be unwelcome to offer some particulars of the language and poetry of Madagascar. François Cauche, of Rouen, published at Paris in 1651, his voyage to that island. The Chevalier de Porny, published at Paris in 1787, the Chansons Madegasses, which he had collected during his residence there. From these two sources the following vocabulary and songs* are derived. Something of the philosophy of language may be learned from the one; much of beautiful nature admired in the other: neither will be wholly indifferent to the ethic observer.

<i>Oola</i>	man
<i>Loa</i>	head
<i>Voole</i>	hair
<i>Saele</i>	ears
<i>Maesse</i>	eyes
<i>Orie</i>	nostrils
<i>Voeve</i>	mouth
<i>Lelle</i>	tongue
<i>Neele</i>	teeth
<i>Voeve</i>	neck
<i>Tatie</i>	stomach
<i>Fourin</i>	buttocks
<i>Fale</i>	womb
<i>Tenongye</i>	arms
<i>Tangue</i>	hands
<i>Treo</i>	belly

* The Songs of the Negroes of Madagascar, which is what is here referred to, have already appeared in No. 6, page 449, of the Monthly Magazine.

<i>Atte</i>	liver
<i>Latte</i>	kidney
<i>Nonne</i>	paps
<i>Tamboe</i>	feet
<i>Voote</i>	penis
<i>Fco</i>	heart
<i>Zin</i>	mind
<i>Affe</i>	fire
<i>Ranne</i>	water
<i>Tanne</i>	earth
<i>Arro</i>	heaven, wind
<i>Auly</i>	charm, remedy
<i>Manfwander</i>	sun
<i>Sig</i>	wine
<i>Sige af</i>	brandy, wine of fire
<i>Aze</i>	tree
<i>Vate</i>	stone
<i>Voolamene</i>	gold
<i>Voola fofshe</i>	silver
<i>Vee</i>	iron
<i>Moofe</i>	bread
<i>Rex</i>	hunger
<i>Ronen</i>	milk
<i>Loaronon</i>	cheese, head of milk
<i>Menakronon</i>	butter, fat of milk
<i>Ambo</i>	dog
<i>Peefa</i>	cat
<i>Jocra</i>	looking-glass
<i>Menak</i>	fat
<i>Mabee</i>	lean
<i>Mabiboo</i>	stinking
<i>Sasse</i>	weary
<i>Mani</i>	displeased
<i>Maulle</i>	filly
<i>Soe</i>	wise
<i>Maye</i>	hot
<i>Mangaffi</i>	cold
<i>So</i>	good
<i>Saele</i>	bad
<i>Ares</i>	violet
<i>Foeffe</i>	white
<i>Creotebai</i>	great
<i>Massifai</i>	little
<i>Mamoo</i>	bold
<i>Mattao</i>	timid, dead
<i>Matapis</i>	covetous
<i>Mattari</i>	liberal
<i>Mowander</i>	false
<i>Moweffe</i>	heavy
<i>Henome</i>	to eat
<i>Minome</i>	to drink

Z z

Mendra

<i>Mandre</i>	to sleep
<i>Toomangre</i>	to weep
<i>Meere</i>	to laugh
<i>Voonoce</i>	to kill
<i>Fante</i>	yes
<i>Scar</i>	no
<i>Ampisse</i>	early
<i>Akakai</i>	before noon
<i>Manfwander ambene</i>	noon
<i>Manfwander matte</i>	night, fun-death
<i>Ranne arwette ambene</i>	rain, water that comes
<i>Harre</i>	blood (from above
<i>Vassarre</i>	fruit
<i>Oewy</i>	root (plant
<i>Aeat vel</i>	live-plant, the sensitive
<i>Haze</i>	wood
<i>Woore</i>	bird
<i>Lallait</i>	bees
<i>Mene</i>	red
<i>Mamy</i>	ripe
<i>Mante</i>	raw, sour
<i>Miente</i>	black
<i>Malaine</i>	soft
<i>Vare</i>	rice in the husk
<i>Empembe</i>	millet
<i>Maraboo</i>	physician
<i>Voolle</i>	moon
<i>Andre</i>	day
<i>Alle</i>	night
<i>Lesalle</i>	yesternight
<i>Anballe</i>	to-night
<i>Amarai</i>	to-morrow
<i>Angondri</i>	sheep
<i>Offe</i>	goat
<i>Annelis</i>	lizard
<i>Fanne</i>	tortoise
<i>Reak</i>	sea
<i>Feique</i>	hatchet
<i>Maberes</i>	strong
<i>Lite</i>	wax
<i>Farremammi</i>	honey
<i>Farre</i>	sugar
<i>Fannefuies</i>	shell-fish
<i>Raaraa</i>	crabs
<i>Is</i>	one
<i>Ro</i>	two
<i>Tel</i>	three
<i>Ef</i>	four
<i>Leem</i>	five
<i>Enne</i>	six
<i>Fiete</i>	seven
<i>Vale</i>	eight
<i>Seerve</i>	nine
<i>Foola</i>	ten
<i>Is mani foola</i>	eleven
<i>Ro mani foola</i>	twelve
<i>Tel mani foola</i>	thirteen
<i>Ropoola</i>	twenty
<i>Telpoola</i>	thirty
<i>Zat</i>	hundred
<i>Rozat</i>	two hundred
<i>Arrive</i>	thousand
<i>Baarive</i>	two thousand

DIALOGUE.

Haifa anno. Art thou come?

Fante taytanne, France. Yes, from the land of France.

Hanbo arwyee autanne Madagascar. Why come you to the land of Madagascar?

Zabai mitondre marmare. I come to bring thee much.

Magnina. What is it?

Angue, arrey, vcora foofbe, fable, firak, lambe, jatoo, angamara. Coral, necklaces, beads, copper, tin, cloth, hats, shoes.

Sos annos anniette. Thou art welcome.

Zabai rarwoo. Glad of it.

Magnina foo annotea. What desires thy heart?

Zabai tea, engombe, engondri, enoffe, enwooffe, accoo, attoole, juie, vassarre, toolooga, voienguembe, foofbe varre. I want beef, mutton, goats, capons, eggs, fruits, lemons, oranges, limes, beans, and white rice.

Zabai omai, anno arwiote entrangue aminai. I will give thee, and thou shalt be welcome in my house.

O-vi zabai mandey antanas en arabez. When shall I go into thy town?

Fobo enno thea arwiote. When thy heart desires.

Zabai mandre telle ovandre. I will go in three days.

Arwiote amini oola abi mitondre, sandek fenoo entanas aminai engare Fanzaire. Come with all thy men; bring thy full chests into the town of Fanzaire.

Salam, roandrie, zabai arwiote empanguinere. Farewel, sir, I will come at that time.

Salain, zabai arwientana amini fo labi mitondre sandok. Good day! I am come to thy town with my chests full.

Misabaa arwo allai, fan lablail. Let me see, open the locks.

Panlallait allai, misabaa fobo annotea. The locks are open, see what thy heart desires.

So abigo, ay oole France manne, zabai anharey mousquine. Anno ommay vooze angue bewente salem arwo. Very fine, how the men of France are rich, and we are poor. Give me that coral necklace only.

Into, roandrie zabommey. There, sir, I give it.

Zabai rarwoo fobo. Magnine teas anno. Thou dost me great pleasure. What shall I give thee?

In manne anno. Wherein art thou rich?

Engombe voosse, angondri, offe, akoboo, voose. In gelt oxen, sheep, goats, and gelt fowls.

Zabai te acco. I will take some.

Intoato oola, meinte mande, anya emboitz, malaque angombe, mitondre ef poola, angombe voosse, foola angombe, tanmane. Come hither, negro, go to the mountain for oxen, and fetch forty gelt oxen and ten cows.

Ize marmare mizza, masse ensandok aminai teanno. It is much, look into my chest for what thou wilt.

Vaz annoo teaz omai anguemadindin, herez madindin, vague momgey-momgey, mentamene scinte zabarai rawoo. I know not if thou wilt give me coral and beads of many colours, green, yellow, red, black.

Into samboorre. Take some.

Zaa citea samboorre, oma anno. I will not take, unless thou givest me.

Into samboorre, voose faibai enwoose, annoo voose massaisai, entangue awali ennoo. Take this necklace, put it on thy neck, and take these motley bracelets for thy wife.

Awiot entrangue, enminai semmesemme trangano. Come to my house, it is thine.

Zaa sitia trangano roandrie, zaa teas tranganos. I will not, thy house, sir, but one to myself.

Samboorre trangano menewali. Take the house of my wife.

Zaa teaco. I consent to it.

Accorwali allai sandok, allai fihit, welongas, looweas oola, vaza tea, trangano. Awiot roandrie, rie madhai. My wife, clear away thy chests, mats, pots, and dishes. Strangers want thy house. Come, sir, she is gone.

Mande banne, manfwander matte. Go away, the sun is dying.

Zaa awiot amarray empisse. I shall come again to-morrow.

Salamzanyak, abi tootoolle, akor sarako. Good day, my children, are you well?

Fante. Yes.

Izangare lambe faibai anmemi, haze larwa enloatambo. What is this net stretched between two bits of wood, fastened at the ends on which you lie?

Engare lambemandre vatte. It is to rest the body upon.

Anbanne manne zare. You are rich in mind.

Quelle quelle, ampanguinaira oola France manne zare mahai meas tootola. So so, in a short time you will see men of France do many other things.

Abo. What?

Meaz trangubas tambook trangue vattes trangue ambone, haze, larwa verwan larwa samme samme trangue France, misse sea lande voolangondre, voolcoffe voolangombe mene meinte monguemongue vague tootolabi. They will toil to build fine houses of wood and stone, with great doors and windows, like those of France, decked with cloths of silk, wool, mohair, ox-hair, red, black, yellow, green, and all colours.

Iaye oola mahai. These men are clever.

Rez mahai amboolle antanne samboorre meaz engamere fatros camis lambe fooshe. They know to sow, plant reap, make shoes, hats, and white linen.

Abo oola mahai meaz andracalle andracalle. Why do your men toil day after day?

Oola se meaz moosquine marwoose rez ampaanguinaira oola meaz manne mahaira vinsi ampaanguinaira. The man who toils not is poor and hungers, but the man who toils, gets drunk and grows rich.

Zabai annarez si mahai meaz moosquine rez ampaanguinaira. Then if we toil not, we are to be poor and to hunger.

Accorre tampoo Zanharrei angarra yanbarra re sitea meaz andracalle andracalle moosquine abi. If our common master, God, will not accept our toil, though we work day after day, it profits not.

Taiza Zanharre zabai simaita. Who is this God? I never saw him.

Re toomooranbon re ampooras tootoolle oolla tanne tootoolle abi manfwandre voobreak raa vinangues bazes abets. He dwells in heaven; he is the father of all men of all the earth, the sun, the moon, the sea, the beasts, the rivers, the trees, the plants.

Zaa tea mizandri zaa itandri rawon ampanguinaira. I would fain see him. I should be very glad of it.

Anno ite abi tootoo awerer fibiti anni tangue anni oola ampanzac tai Manafia. Thou seeest him every where; hast thou not seen him in the hand of our priest at Manafia?

Zaa ite oola ampanzac ampoo warre samboorre anni tangue booroo booroo fooshe massaisai vague abelin ampingue abelin fik moone minon ampanguinaira zaa fibiti zanbarre. I have seen your priest talk, and take in his hands a round white thing, which he broke and put into a cup of wine, which he drank; but I saw not God.

Samme samme oola vaza biti ampaanguinaira. If thou wert a man of the faith, thou wouldst see him directly.

Zaba

Zaha teakke. I consent to it.

Tomoira ampanguinaira oola amponfae awiote antan annairez. Wait, in a little while you will have priests in your land, who will teach you.

Zaha ra-woo. I shall be glad of it.

Ampoorras zaha rez haiza an ommez annabae. Father, I hunger, where shall I find to eat?

Annak mis akoho lahe woosse tamanne massai attoole sarra angondri esse romonne. Son, I have many cocks, capons, hens, chickens, eggs, calves, sheep, goats, and milk.

Zaa thea ro ako wooffi awo. I desire only two capons.

Quelle quelle amini oolo abi. So so, that is little for you all.

Manfwandre ambone zaa thea mande mitif voorre fecque auranne amni varre. When the sun is high, I will kill ducks in the water, where thy rice grows.

Maninye matte voorre. Wherewith wilt thou kill them?

Amili ampingarê larwa fenoo auli bachie. With a long gun, full of powder and lead.

Oowee mande zathea ombe anyo. When goest thou? I will go with thee.

Amarai ampisse. To-morrow early.

Aho amarai ampisse si mandai anyon. Why to-morrow early, canst thou not to-day?

Ato mandai. Come, let us go.

Mixe avorroo roandri. See these birds, sir.

Anno tomoire zaa missix. Stir not, I am going to fire.

Zaa mitenne firi voorre matte. I have heard: how many birds are dead?

Zai voonon vale. I have killed eight.

Ize vale marmare. Eight! that is many.

Accorre roandri fitea awiote biane voorre. Now, sir, wilt thou not come and eat of them?

Teako lili woofe anni voorre allai raz. I agree to it. Cut the neck, that the blood may come out.

Zaa lili woofe allai wole allai anfnai awoli ani aze larwe. I have cut the necks; pluck them, gut them, spit them on a cane, and turn them.

Zannok ben mansok enbarrez fitia hin. Son, the meat is roasted, shall we eat?

Zaa teako. I consent.

Ato ambanne anniffice. Let us sit on these mats.

Sos ben mansok. It is nicely roasted.

Atao minon siq tantelle minon sarakoo ano. Let us drink wine. I drink thy health.

Zai koo. And I thine.

Vinsi ben ondooe in twato foofhe narre wronnon waaguembe onces many woannio.

I am full of meat, Slave, bring rice-milk, beans, ripe banyans, and prunes.

Accorre anno awiote autanna anai ise oomai annoo. If thou come to my town, what shall I give thee?

Vas. I know not.

Zabai moosguin hin en angombe akeo ani enpoorras rene rafooze vali anai anacawandri zana lahe zanna ampelle anna lahe oratongue ondeves annai abelin siq mitondre ben. I am poor; thou wilt eat only beef and chickens: but my father shall be there, my mother, my grandmother, my wife, my sister, my son and daughter, my brother, my uncle and aunt, and my slaves shall serve us with wine and meat.

Accore fibin fuie. Shall we eat no fish?

Hin ko malak oola mabai samboorre fuie. We will eat some. I will send men to take fish.

Ise marmare fuie an winangue. Are there many fish in your river?

Marmare. Many.

Ooaira. Whither goest thou?

Miraa oola mabai samboole fuie. I am to see for my men to take fish.

Toomooaire zaa thea mandeano. Stay, I will go with thee.

Ato mande han. Let us go then.

Ize winangue. Here is the river.

Ize oole mabai samboole fuie. Here are the men ready to take fish.

Ize maroo tali faya anni foole. Here are many lines fastened to a net.

Samboorre fuie enetoc. They are to take the fish.

Aho oole simatao voy omban winangue. The men are bold, for all the crocodiles, venturing into the river.

Ize ef samboorre tali. Here's an end; they are taking in the lines.

Aho marre fuie. Ah! how many fish.

Miraa lanzaa. Look! Reckon.

Maninye ef tootole fuie. What shall we do with all this fish?

Vas samboorre tea anno fuie tomoira zabai amilioo labi. I know not. Take what thou wilt, the rest I shall divide among my people.

Zaa filea samboorre fuie anno tampon ondeve anno mitondre antrangue anno. I will not take any of this fish; your slaves shall carry what you choose to your house.

So abigo. Well said!

Mandai allboa wabai ombe ampanguinaira. Go before, I shall be there in a little while.

Zabai lasso salame. I will go then, farewell.

To the Editor of the Monthly Magazine.

SIR,

The following admirable topographical piece, prefixed by the illustrious HALLER to his treatise on Swiss Plants, not having, as I believe, yet appeared in an English dress, I am induced to offer it to your miscellany, under the persuasion that its intrinsic merit, and the interest excited by the country of which it treats, will render it acceptable to your readers, notwithstanding the various accounts, by other writers, which have appeared relative to the same part of Europe.

THE TOPOGRAPHY AND NATURAL HISTORY OF THE SWISS ALPS.

By the late BARON HALLER.

WHAT is called *Switzerland*, contains the thirteen allied cantons; the country of the Grisons, the Valais and other allied states, and the subjects of the free states. The extent of the whole country is not considerable, containing about four degrees of longitude, and the space between the 46th and 48th degree of latitude.

The whole of Switzerland may be divided into two parts; of which the Cisalpine is the greatest, and contains the principal states: the Transalpine consists entirely of subject districts, torn from the Milanese.

Switzerland proper is situated to the north of the Alps, and among their very summits. Its general boundaries are, to the south, that very long chain of Alps which runs from the Lemman-lake, between the Valais and the vallies of Aouste, Sessia, Antigoria, and others, to mount Furca; and thence from mount Gothard, through mount Lucmainer and Adulla, between the free Grisons and their subject allies, thence between the Valtelline and Engadina, and so to the Bormian ridge. This chain of Alps is indeed here and there somewhat depressed, so as to afford passages towards Italy; but even these vallies are very much elevated, and are real craggy alps; nor did ever wheel find a way from Switzerland to Italy. This line, which is nearly one hundred leagues in length, I usually call the southern alpine chain. It is not, however, one simple ridge; for others, either parallel, or variously connected with it, and rising to nearly an equal height, run from east to west.

From the neighbourhood of the Lemman-lake, and especially from the barriers of the Valais, commences the northern chain

of alps, which first runs southwards, then directly east, dividing the Valais from Bern, and coalescing with the southern chain in mount Furca. But from mount Gothard, which is connected with Furca by other alps, another chain begins, nearly in the same direction, named Crispalt, separating first the canton of Uri, and then that of Glaris, from the Grisons. This chain subsides about Sargens, into hills of moderate height; it then rises again into very craggy summits between St. Gall and Toggenburg; and with gentler elevations between these districts and the Rhine, is continued to the lake of Constance.

From each of these principal chains, the northern and southern, shorter ridges, but frequently of great height, run in a different direction; from the former, generally towards the north and west; from the latter, towards the south and east.

The principal alps from the southern chain run between Savoy and Piedmont, and so south-eastwards to the sea, as far as the mouth of the Var. Some of these are of stupendous height. A shorter ridge runs due southwards into Aouste, and divides into many branches, separating the narrow vallies of this district. A considerable one also proceeds from mount Furca, and descends by Domo d'Ossela and the Lago Maggiore into the duchy of Milan. To the north the same high chain sends out many ridges, but shorter ones, into the principal valley of the Valais, intercepting portions of it, like branches.

Beyond the Furca, in the country of the Grisons, so multiplied and various are the ridges which run from the great alpine chain, that they can scarcely be described in words. Of these many are exceedingly wild and lofty, particularly those that run eastwards about Bormio and the Valtelline.

The northern ridge of the alps pushes many branches into the canton of Bern, and thence into Underwald, Uri, Glaris, and Schwitz.*

Some of the alps are insulated, and detached from all others, every where surrounded with lakes or vallies, as some ridges between Bern and Friburgh, and mount Rigi, in Schwitz.

These are the Alps. To the north and west Switzerland is separated from Alsace

* Part of the description of the original is here abridged, as it consists of a number of names which could only be found in a good map.

and Franche Comté by *Mount Jura*, a much lower chain, and more resembling the mountains of other countries; yet split here and there into several ridges, parallel or inclined towards each other, between which are interposed the vallies of Neufchatel, Bienne, and the bishopric of Basil.

The country between the Alps and mount Jura approaches nearer to a plain, yet is rendered unequal in parts by risings and hilly tracts. Nor is there any where in Switzerland a large extent of plain, from whence no mountains may be discerned. The most level are some parts of the canton of Zurich, and the larger sub-alpine vallies.

The face of the Alps appears to me not sufficiently known; I shall therefore briefly describe it, as I have observed it in many journeys through its regions.

The Alps are entirely of a rocky nature, in most places naked about the summit, with a middle girdle of pasture, and the roots clothed with woods of fir.--- Though from a distance they appear composed of pyramids far detached all round from the neighbouring mountains, yet in reality they are ridges, some parts of which are more elevated than the rest. Their height has not been accurately determined: That of the mountain Dent de Midi alone has been found to be 8161 feet above the level of the Rhone, by J. Gamaliel de Roverea, late engineer at the Bern salt-works. But this mountain loses all its snow almost every year, and is the extreme and lower termination of the southern chain. By an experiment of Loys, the Montagne Maudite, in Savoy, rises 13,440 feet above the Leman-lake; and the same, or more, is the height of Mount Schreckhorn, Sylvio, the mountains above Gothard, Septimus, and the Grison ridges above Bormio. For Micheli's calculation of 2,760 perches for the height of mount Gothard, depends upon an uncertain basis between Arburg and the Alps. The Alps, therefore, in general rise to about 16,000 Paris feet above the sea; for the Leman-lake has an elevation of 1000 or 1,200 from the sea*.

Great part of the Alps appears covered with snow, which in many ridges is eternal. That which is seen is not, however, snow. A perpetual ice forms the crust which covers the declivities of the Alpine summits, as with a breast-plate.

* Sir G. Shuckborough makes Mont Blanc, in Savoy, 15,662 feet.

Upon this the snow is seated. Hence the inhabitants rightly name *Gletscher* what we in German call *snowy mountains*. This ice in some places covers a breadth of a thousand perches and more. Its under surface, which faces the rock or sand, is generally hollow; and from this vault drops of water distil on all sides, most copiously in the summer heats, when a rivulet springs from every mass of ice. Such is the origin of the Rhine and Rhone, in the source of which I have formerly quenched my thirst; of the Aar and Rus. To these waters, destined to the production of rivers, accessions are occasionally made, when the snows melt from the warmth of the air or the heat of the sun; a circumstance which principally happens from sudden storms attended with thunder, or south-westerly winds, to the great terror and peril of the neighbouring inhabitants.

A third cause of the rivers is the rain distilling from the clouds, whenever they are suddenly taken up from the middle ridge of the Alps, and dissolved into a dewy shower on the summits of the mountains; a phenomenon which I have several times witnessed. The conflux of these waters into rivulets is aided by the peculiar structure of the Alps. The rocks which tower aloft are grooved by innumerable trenches, which are inclined planes, meeting at various angles.--- Through these, firmly wrought in a stony channel, the waters from the heavens descend, and below the summits of the Alps unite either into a lake, of which these mountains contain a vast multitude in their vallies, or into a rivulet. A stream thus formed, augmented from similar sources, flows through the upper vallies in a shallow channel; but as it descends lower, where the mountain has a more earthy soil, it digs itself a deep bed among the precipices; from whence rushing in repeated cataracts, and often dashed into mist by its fall, it at length gains the valley. Here it brings down stones torn from the mountains, and overspreads it with a gravelly coat, till at last it is either swallowed up in some more extensive lake, or is lost in a larger river. This is the common structure of the Alps, whereby they generate rivers, by the junction of waters from liquified ice, melting snow, and rain and mist.

The alpine lakes, for the most part, pour off their waters by torrents proceeding from them. From some, however, the water steals away through imperceptible chinks. Of this kind is the lake

lake of Jura, not an inconsiderable one, but three leagues in length, which I have observed upon the spot not to discharge its waters by any torrent, but silently to lose them by chinks in its stony bed. In other lakes I do not deny that there are manifest whirlpools. Indeed, I have myself seen, near Roche, the waters of the torrent called l'Eaufroide sink beneath the rocks with a visible whirlpool, and murmur away at a distance under my feet: and frequently, on comparing rivers with themselves, I have been convinced that they have lost a great part of their water in their descent to the plains; as in the latter, the quantity of water was much less than might have been expected from the conjoined torrents; less, indeed, than it had been above the junction of many rivulets which fell into the main stream. If the Aar, near Interlac, be compared with the Aar at Bern, where it may be forded under the old hospital, it will be found to contain much more water before it has received the Cander, the Simm, the Rotach, the Sull, and the Gurb, torrents of no inconsiderable magnitude.

It must not, however, be omitted, that the use of the sub-alpine lakes is twofold; one, and the most evident of which, is to exhale part of the water flowing from the mountains; the other, to break that immense velocity with which the torrents rush down a fall of so many thousand feet. For the Aar flows with no greater swiftness from the lake Thun towards Bern, than it would have done if it had taken its rise in that lake. By both these means the violence of the Alpine streams is checked, which is much more dangerous to their neighbours when no lake receives them.

I have spoken of the icy breast-plate of the Alps, possessing the whole extensive tract beneath their summits. But there are also other vast masses filling the icy vallies, which to the south have the loftiest ridges of mountains, shading them from the solar rays; though these icy tracts are likewise found on the southern face of the Alps. These vallies often for the space of several leagues, nay, even one or two days journey, are filled with ice, which is spread over the subjacent rock or sand, and by them as by a nucleus is figured, so as to represent an angry sea congealed with all its waves. A valley of this kind is continued from the Alps above the valley of Lauterbrunnen, to that valley which emits the Aar, to the hospital of Grimsul, a length of near 14 leagues. Another of equal length

from the valley of Bagnes towards Vige is intercepted between two ridges of the southern Alps. And there are many vallies filled with an icy lake of the same kind, interspersed among the Alpine chains; not, indeed, so connected as to form one icy sea, as our late friends Christian, the physician, and J. George Altmann, the Greek professor, have asserted in their writings. For the first-mentioned lake is terminated on this side Grimsul; and if its extent be traced as far as possible, is certainly interrupted in the Alps of Gemmi.

From these icy lakes amidst the Alpine crags, where in places the mountainous range is broken by a little ravine, continuous icy declivities descend into the inhabited plain. Strangers usually visit these under the idea of rivers of ice, two of which may be seen in the valley of Grindel, and a third near them as soon as you cross the height of Schiedek. From declivities of this kind, springing from the icy lakes, rivers also proceed, as that of Lutschin, in Grindel.

The chains of Alps are usually composed of many ridges, of which the middle are the highest. From these, on each side, towards the plain, others run generally parallel to the principal. In this manner the vallies in which ice is deposited are formed.

The inferior Alpine cliffs, especially towards the west, are in various parts composed of a species of Schistus. The highest summits consist of rock compounded of mica, quartz, and a softer matter, called Geisberger. The lower regions are clothed with calcarious stones, marbles of all kinds, and other hard stones, which furnish to the rivers the round calcarious stones which they roll down. Concretions of flints are mingled, cemented together by a very hard matter. Whetstone is generally found on the hills. The Alpine vallies contain sand, which, however, is never found in the summits, and seems produced from the comminution of the rock by water. Crystals are generally contained in the quartz, and are met with in the highest Alps.

The Alpine earth is tenacious, black, with small sandy and stony particles: in the Valais it is frequently interspersed with silvery mica: in other respects it is not unlike marsh earth, which, however, is usually more tenacious, and purely earthy, without pebbles. Indeed, a great part of the Alps and of other mountains is marshy.

The soil of the sub-alpine vallies, where they are flat, is frequently a blueish clay; which is the cause why they are generally marshy. For the rills of water falling from the heights swim upon this clay and stagnate, nourishing plants of that kind which love to be always in water. Above this clay, the torrents deposit either a stratum of stone and gravel, or fine sand; the latter more rarely. But that the inundations of torrents have anciently been very frequent, is demonstrated by the great and round stones which are in many places found on digging cellars and wells. That the marshy meadows were formerly wooded, may be conjectured from the trees which are frequently found in fenny soils. Above the lakes there is every where, I believe, a plain of some leagues, through which the parent river runs in the midst of level marshes.

Mould would be scarce in Switzerland, had not the perpetual industry of three ages gradually fabricated vegetable earth from manure, which now tempers the gravels or clays. Here and there, however, fertile fields may be found, yielding a large increase of seed.

I have no where in the Alps met with vestiges of volcanic mountains; no pumices, or any thing like scorix, or matter calcined by the force of fire. Yet sulphur is plentiful in some parts. Funnels also, or chasms, an acre or more in extent, may be observed: but I rather suppose them the ruins of gypseous stones, which water has consumed.

Metals do not belong to my subject; yet Switzerland possesses many, though very few in any abundance, so as to be wrought with profit. Several torrents wash down gold, particularly the Emma, and the Goldbach which flows into it, and next to these the Aar and the Rhone. I know not whether any mine of gold has been discovered, except in the Valais, where about mount Semperon, in a yellow clayey earth, some gold is extracted by means of quicksilver, by the flourishing family of Burginers. Silver mines have been discovered in the canton of Bern, and even in the higher Alps, about lake Engstlan, but to no advantage. Copper is dug up in the Valais, about Martinach. There is a rich mine of lead above Morcle, in Bern; and formerly lead was smelted about Sichelauinen, in the valley of Lauterbrunnen. Iron is sufficiently plentiful, yet in very few places are there profitable mines of it. The richest ore, in roundish masses, like yellowish slints,

abound in mount Jura; it is soft and of good quality; but being mistakenly abandoned to strangers, is smelted to advantage almost solely in the mountains of the bishoprick of Basil. In mount Wetterhorn, a rich heavy ore, nearly resembling the iron produced from it, is found: but the furnaces in which it was smelted are fallen to decay. Steel has been made in the county of Chiavenna about Flims; but I am informed that this fabric too is discontinued. Sulphur is frequent in Bern, in mount Lohner, out of which I have seen brimstone and vitriol procured, in the village of Candersteg: also, about Sublins, above Le Revioux, where it effloresces virgin from the rocks. There are also springs loaded with sulphur in the salt-water pits; and sub-saline waters rich in sulphureous vapour, which takes fire on the approach of a candle, are boiled down not without benefit. Above Lausanne the earth also is found rich in sulphur; yet they no where turn these gifts of nature to advantage. Petroleum flows in various places; as not far above Bern on the Aar; and it is found copiously mixed in the gritty stone of Chavornao.

Crystals are in tolerable abundance, and of some value. Large pyramidal masses of it are found in caverns, where the inhabitants discover them by protuberances in the rock. On the banks of the Aar, as it flows towards the hospital of Grimsul, in a most wild valley, masses of one hundred, two hundred, and more pounds, were dug out in the year 1727, which I saw and examined in 1728 and 1733. Among these, was a mass composed of two united pyramids, weighing 697 pounds. In the upper Valais still greater masses have been found. The canton of Uri also yields crystals; and many persons throughout the country support themselves by digging up or vending crystals.

Of mineral waters there is ample store in Switzerland. True hot springs are found at Baden and near Leuk; tepid waters at Fabar and Weissenburg: there are also cold waters impregnated with a fine bole or lixivial earth, which have the odour of rotten eggs. Acidulous waters are rare, scarce any being known but those in the Engadina, near St. Maurice's church.

Brines, or salt springs, are only met with in that corner of the territory of Bern which is terminated on this side by the torrent of Avanson, on the other by that of La Grande Eau. This tract is covered with a stratum of gypsum, which

is, in various places, burned for the use of the builder; and there is sulphur in the vicinity. The veins of brine are weak: that is somewhat the strongest which springs in the mountain les Fondemens, in which there is about an eighth of sea salt: another near it is weaker, full of a sulphureous vapour, and yielding scarcely above a hundredth of salt. Those also are weak, though more copious, which issued from a free-stone rock, two leagues from thence, near the village Panex: lastly, those are the most scanty which in the same tract spring from the surface of the earth, beneath the high rock of Chamosiére. It is worthy of notice, that in many places a salt water percolates from a blue compact marle, in the centre of the mountain, round which is a rock composed of very hard micaceous whetstone.

Another kind of salt both effloresces spontaneously from the rocks, even in the neighbourhood of the salt-springs, and is also contained in a black soil in various parts of the Alps. This is manufactured by some of the inhabitants into a purging salt, under the name of *Gletscher Salt*. In the crevices of the rocks under Chamosiére is found a salt resembling native Glauber's Salt, cooling, bitter, icy, destitute of regular figure, and frothing when laid on red hot iron.

In common waters Switzerland excels almost every country in Europe. I never recollect out of Switzerland to have seen those limpid and truly crystalline waters, which gush, unpolluted by any earth, strained through the pure flints of our rocks. Not a few of them have this further advantage, that they neither themselves freeze in the severest colds, nor permit common water to freeze when mixed with it. A rill of this kind rushes from the village of Fontenai, and is carried by pipes to Aigle, protecting the waters of Grande Eau, with which it mixes, from the utmost violence of frost. Such, too, are the springs in the manor farm of Roche, which alone suffice for the whole village in the most rigorous winters, when all others are frozen up. The cause of this phenomenon is unknown: the waters are extremely pure, and grateful to the taste. Perhaps they are collected not far from their source into some deep subterranean lake, where, as in a natural fortrefs, they resist the power of frost, and in a short course cannot suddenly be reduced from their native heat of 53 degrees to that of 32.

Further, the waters of Switzerland do not become fetid on standing, nor produce

conserua, as is common in those of other countries.

Switzerland generates streams for all Europe, in the manner we have already mentioned. These waters find on all sides declivities prepared for them, through which they descend into the greater vallies, as those of the Valais, the Valtelline, the Grisons, &c. and empty into the sub-alpine lakes, with which Switzerland abounds. The rivers, however, never lay aside all their savage character: for the Rhine has two cataracts between Schaffhausen and Basil, and a most rapid current both at Schaffhausen, and between Laufenburg and Rheinfelden. The Aar, sixty leagues from its source, runs through a dangerous and rapid channel above the town of Brugg. The Rhone, below the Lemman lake, sinks into the earth in the midst of rocks. The Inn, which the country of the Grisons sends to the Euxine sea, has a precipitous course throughout. The Tell, alone, both above and below the lake of Neufchatel, flows with a calm and navigable stream.

There is no valley in Switzerland without its rivulet; scarcely a village which is not enlivened by springs of running water. Wells are hardly known, except in a very few places, where there is no declivity. Hence I cannot believe that stumous swellings are produced by the impurity of the waters: for though in the Valais muddy waters are drunk, yet the water at Bern is extremely pure, where, nevertheless, stumous diseases are not infrequent in both sexes.

It remains for me to speak of the mountains; between which and the Alps there is a great difference. The principal of these is Jura, which on one side stretches beyond Geneva towards Lyons; on the other, extends near fifty leagues to the conflux of the Aar with the Rhine, where it terminates. It is a little craggy in many places, tame, woody, and even admitting the plough beneath its highest summits. In this mountain are long plains, and ridges like the principal: there are no pyramids; yet the bare summits are not productive of trees. The greatest part of the mountain is composed of an uniform, yellowish, very hard stone, useful for building, but unfit for the carver. Jura abounds in iron of the best quality. It is drier than the Alps, and in places void of water, even in the vallies; so that the rivulets of melted snow and ice might be here wished for.

There are also in the valley of Emms mountains continued from the Alps, though distantly, which the country people

people themselves distinguish by a peculiar name from the craggy Alps. These are entirely composed of gravel, or at least arched beneath by rocks concealed under much earth, nearly as in the Hercynian valley.

From these mountains innumerable hills are derived, separated by little watered dales, without any certain order. In the hills whetstone prevails, which may be met with every where from the village of Lutry to Burgdorf, either naked and broken, or buried under a little earth; on a sandy mountain of which kind the city of Bern is placed.

I do not find, however, that in the tracts of Switzerland there is any uniformity of the various species of stone. About Lutry whetstone is dug. Then succeeds a hard calcarious stone continued from the Alps. With these are mingled stony concretions of flints, cemented by a hard matter: these may be found scattered by the road from Cuilly to St. Saphorin. Hard calcarious rocks again succeed beyond Chilon, and true marble of various colours, which on all sides hangs over the principal valley of Aigle. Yet the same marble is here and there interrupted by a reddish whetstone on this side Ivorne; and by much gypsum beyond the Grande Eau. The neighbouring rocky part of the Valais is destitute of marble. A schistus comes down to Bex, above which town it is fit for slating. Thence it ascends into the Alps.

Thus, when the hill near Bern, beyond the Aar, was dug through for making the high-road, I saw mixed micaceous stone and alpine quartz, intermingled in the quarry with a round lime-stone, and gritty whetstone. Clay also covers the whole mountain Jorat, the rocks of which consist of whetstone.

I shall add, that the Swiss marbles are all variously coloured, no white ones having been found; so that we are ignorant whence the Romans brought those immense masses of white marble which are seen in the building and statues at Avenches. The marble climbs to the higher regions; for a kind, variegated with rose-colour and green, is frequently found about the icy rocks of the valley of Grindelwald, in fallen masses, but not in entire rocks. A very beautiful black kind is dug near St. Tryphon; a kind variegated yellow, ash-coloured, and blood-red, about Roche; and near it, an ash-coloured and spotted kind; about Spiez, a black with white veins, of which the houses in Bern are usually built above

ground. The blueish whetstone of Bern is very beautiful; but it has the fault of attracting moisture to such a degree, as to consume itself if it touches the earth. Flints, jasperine, white, red, green, and black, every where abound in the rivulets of Switzerland: the black ones are said to contain some gold. The sands consist of triturated quartz, of little pebbles, like granates; and other crystals: the beds of rivers are generally strewed with very flat oval stones, of a sandy nature, extremely fit for the experiments of the celebrated Spallanzani.

Chalk is unknown in Switzerland, though it abounds in calcarious stones. No where, also, are to be found large tracts of sand: those which there are appear either about the margins of lakes, or the shores of rivers.

I now come to the subject which the preceding observations were intended to introduce; namely, the variety of plants which Switzerland produces. This variety is connected with the situation of places, the water, but principally the air.

Switzerland represents almost all the countries in Europe; from the farthest Lapland, and even Spitzbergen, to Spain. About the rocks of ice, in the highest valleys of the Alps, the temperature of the air is the same with that of Spitzbergen: the summer is extremely short, scarcely consisting of forty days, and those too interrupted by snow; and all the rest of the year is severe winter. Hence most of the plants found by Martens in Spitzbergen are produced near the glaciers of the Alps. Since these plants in Spitzbergen and Greenland grow near the sea, it appears, that the cause why they are also peculiar to the Alps is not the levity of the air, but the cold; for in this respect the climate of the Alps resembles that of the remotest north; but in the weight of the air it is extremely different.

From thence, on leaving the eternal ice, pastures succeed; first poor, stony, and frequented by sheep alone; in which plants of the humblest growth, all perennial, and many of them distinguished by white flowers, compose short turf. They are in general harder than common, more tenacious of their colour in dyeing, and more aromatic, so as that even the common *ranunculuses* have a grateful odour.

The pastures, becoming more and more fertile, now suffice for cows, which remain in them the forty days that alone are free from snow, nor then, indeed, with perfect constancy. In that region numerous plants are produced, which are commonly called
aspine;

alpine; and not a few of which also grow in Lapland, Siberia, and Kamtschatka; some likewise in the highest mountains of Asia. The summits of mountains afford the greatest of these plants.

In these pastures trees begin to shoot up; first the Savines, and Pines with an eatable nut, together with the Rhododendrons, Vacciniums, Salixes with a Myrtle leaf, and with a Thyme leaf, and others.

A little lower succeed the Fir woods, in the declivities both of the Alps, and the other mountains. Some of these, which face the north, produce the boreal plants of Lapland and Siberia; as that which descends from the mountain Poutdenant to the village les Plans. The other woods of this kind generally afford the Hercynian and Swedish plants, and some peculiar to the country.

The woods are occasionally interrupted by meadows, which owe their rise to burned trees, and are for the most part very fertile, and abundant in the finest hay. Among these, the Yellow Gentians, Veratrums, Campanula with a Draba leaf, Anchusas, brown Stachys, and other mountain plants prevail.

And now succeed the sub-mountainous and subalpine regions, variegated with fields, meadows, and woods; such as the territory of Friburg, and other tracts lying beneath the lower mountains; tracts not level, but unequal in their surface, composed of clusters of hills and vallies. These resemble the north of Germany, yet are without its sands: they have some turf bogs, but not large. Along with common plants, some Alpine ones are here found, probably brought down by the torrents.

The vine-bearing plains follow, as those of Basil, Zurich, Turgow, Paternach, Vaud, Geneva, and the alpine vallies. This warmer tract resembles that of Jena, or the middle of Germany. But the sunny banks of the Lemane lake, and that of Neufchatel, and the midst of the Valais, excel all others in the generous quality of the wines and plants. Here we meet with many plants of Austria, the south of France, and Italy; and some even of Spain in the very hot and southerly exposed vallies of the Valtelline and Valais. In the same are produced aromatic wines, replete with native spirit, and extremely strong.

The heat of the atmosphere in these

vallies is such as scarcely can be credited by strangers. I have seen, when the sky threatened a storm, in a thermometer at Roche exposed to the sun, the mercury ascend to the 117th degree of Fahrenheit's scale; and in the year 1762, even to the 140th, when fixed to a garden wall, protected from the north and east.

The hottest parts of all are in the Valtelline, and in transalpine Switzerland, about Lugano and Chiavenna. These afford plants, as yet not sufficiently examined, but entirely Italian, and unknown in Germany, unless Carniola and Istria be reckoned in that country.

Thus it comes to pass, that Switzerland, in a small compass, produces more numerous plants than those kingdoms of which we as yet possess floral catalogues. Not that we deny that the same riches will be found in the Alps, vallies, and plains of Savoy and Piedmont, when the collections of C. Allionius shall be made public. But if A. Gouan, in his *Flora Montpelienensis*, has enumerated 1,865 species, of which about 1,600 have conspicuous flowers; and if our enumeration contains almost 2,500 species, of which there are 1,714 exclusive of Lichens, Mosses and Fungi; I may justly suppose that ours exceed in number, since that celebrated botanist has reckoned among his many garden plants; whereas we have not a single one which may not be found in uncultivated spots; and there are scarcely above twenty which can be suspected to have come originally from gardens.

It is wonderful in how small a tract such a variety of plants is contained. If from Sion in the Valais you travel to Mount Sanetsch, a journey of about seven hours, you will leave at Sion the *Ephedra*, the *Gramen echinatum*, the *Pomegranates*, flowering in the rocks of mount Valeria, you will leave the Chestnuts and flourishing Walnuts, filled by the chirpings of the *Cicadae*, and the vines producing excellent wine; then, the fields fertile in the finest wheat; and by degrees the Beeches and Oaks will vanish; then even the Firs will desert you, and soon after the Pines with an edible nut; at length, the whole race of trees; and you may dine among the heath-like *Saxifrages*, and other plants of Spitzbergen; and thus, in the space of half a day, collect plants which grow from the 40th to the 80th degree of latitude.

For the Monthly Magazine.

HEADS OF AN ESSAY ON CIVIL JURISPRUDENCE.

Read before a learned Society.

AT a period when the public attention has been so much directed to political investigation, and when we can even venture to pronounce that a very liberal style of thinking has prevailed upon these subjects, it could not fail to excite some degree of surprize, if we should find upon enquiry, that the most important of political topics had been, (both practically and theoretically) almost totally neglected; and the most pernicious errors incautiously countenanced, on matters, the most affecting to human happiness.

The majority of kings and statesmen (I include even those who have been in general elevated above mean and selfish views) have imagined that they consulted best the welfare of their respective states, when they increased their territory; when they formed treaties of alliance, calculated to enlarge the power, and, what they are pleased to consider as the glory of the nation; and above all, when they have extended and improved its commerce, and increased its wealth.

Even speculative politicians have fallen into an error almost equally prejudicial. They have in general been engaged in contests concerning the form which the executive power of a nation ought to assume—they have not considered, that in every country where public liberty is fortified by the strong barrier of a popular legislature, it is almost impossible that oppression or despotic authority should be exercised; and that the rest is a mere question of expediency, whether the executive authority of a state shall descend in a chain of subordination from one chief magistrate, or shall be radically divided into different departments? a question which, in my opinion, might be discussed in much fewer words than have been bestowed upon it: a question, the solution of which is really of much less importance than many other political topics that have attracted less attention.

While such have been the usual employments of statesmen and philosophers, they have almost entirely overlooked a subject of instant importance to the happiness of society; a subject in which every individual is deeply interested; a subject which gives, as it were, the very character to every Society—It is in fact THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE in every

country which renders that country more or less desirable. This it is that stamps a value on the political establishment when it happens to be good, and above every other circumstance affects the welfare of a people.

A few authors indeed have latterly arisen, among whom, one of the most respectable, is the Marquis Beccaria, who have treated of criminal law in a philosophical manner; but I do not recollect a single writer who has arisen to point out the defects in Civil Jurisprudence, though I am persuaded that in most countries of Europe the civil is much more defective than the criminal code, and productive of much more oppression, injustice, and unhappiness.

In the narrow limits of a literary memoir it would be absurd, were the writer possessed of every necessary qualification, to enter into the minuteness of legal disquisition; and all that can possibly be attempted is to exhibit a slight sketch of what apparently ought to be the leading principles in a rational code of Civil Jurisprudence.

The FIRST principle which I should insist upon as essential to a good code of laws is, that they be *harmonious* and *consistent*.—The whole of the laws ought to branch out from a few principles, and these as consistent as possible with natural justice; and though the cases ought to be as numerous as possible, in order to afford a specific remedy for every wrong, yet the spirit should be the same in all, and the same chain of reasoning should universally apply.—But with which of the European codes is this the case? In most of them, in our own for instance, the principle of the law is directly at war with the practice.—The principle is mostly feudal, and is only to be raked out of obsolete volumes by the indefatigable labour of the antiquarians. The judge who sits upon the bench is sometimes at a loss for the *reason* and principle of the law which he administers. The advocate often misunderstands, and still more commonly perverts it; and the jury and the suitors all remain in the most perfect ignorance. It is a mystery, a juggle, only for the initiated; and even they are frequently lost in its mazes, and unable to say where the influence of feudality should end, and where the modern system should begin.

Hence proceeds the absurd discrepancy between what is called real and personal property. Hence an estate in land shall be

be distributed totally different from an estate in the funds, though both are essentially alike as far as regards the mere property. Hence landed property is said, in the language of the law, always to descend, while personal property is allowed to ascend. In other words, if a man, possessed of a landed estate, unfortunately dies without a will, or if that will be not formally executed, that estate shall go to the 48th cousin, in preference to his father or mother, though the miserable parents may perish in a workhouse. What but the criminal indolence of a legislature, added to the selfish views of the professors of the law, could permit such a system of legal injustice, such a contradiction to the very spirit of all laws, to disgrace for centuries the code of an enlightened nation?

On the same principle it is well known, that if a person, fraudulently disposed, only invests his property in land, at his death he completely wrongs his creditors of all the debts which he had contracted, perhaps entirely on the credit of that same landed property; as land by our law is not chargeable with the just debts of the proprietor. Those who are conversant in legal antiquities know the reasons upon which these distinctions were formerly established; but no man can shew the smallest reason why they at present should exist.

Thus also primogeniture is the standing principle of our law of descents. But this is not only departed from with respect to personal property; but so absurd is this relic of feudal barbarism, and so fatal in its consequences, that, contrary to the system of those who established it, our legislature has been obliged to sanction a continual violation of it in testamentary dispositions; and even in most cases where the law *unfortunately* happens to be the distributor of property, the event is lamented as a most fatal accident, and is often attended with the worst consequences; consigning the younger branches of a family to dependance, beggary, and prostitution.

I have heard but one argument, why the law should not adopt a better distribution of the effects of intestates; and that is, that it might prove injurious to the system of hereditary nobility. This, however, I cannot account an argument of general cogency. In the case of nobility an exception might easily be established, and a certain portion of property might be always reserved to accompany the title. I respect the nobility of England, and feel no predilection for any levelling system; but it cannot be right that the real in-

terest of nine millions of people should be sacrificed to what is perhaps only the imaginary interest of 300l.

The law of *Escheat* is another of these cruel and unjust principles, derived from the feudal superstition. That the offence of an individual, who is guilty of felony, should not only cause the whole of his real property to revert to the lord, but should incapacitate the whole of his family, both upwards and downwards, for twenty generations, from the power of inheriting any landed property whatever, is so shocking an invasion of all equity, of all humanity, that the legislature which sanctions the continuance of such a law for a single session must be unaccountably inattentive to their first duty, which is to establish as perfect a system of jurisprudence as may be for the whole realm.

I cannot conclude these instances of absurdity, without noticing a decision which but lately took place in a court of justice; I do not exactly recollect where. A physician sued his patient for attendance upon him during a fit of sickness; but, to the astonishment of all reasonable persons, the court discovered that a physician stands upon a different footing from all other men, (I say *all*, because the lawyers take care to be paid before hand) and that he has no right to demand any remuneration for his personal services. I think *honorarium* was the barbarous phrase by which the plaintiff was defrauded of his just demand: but, surely the faculty may say with Falstaff, "I like not such grinning honour as Sir Walter Blunt hath." Reason and conscience dictate that "every labourer is worthy of his hire;" and that system of law is defective, which precludes any individual from the recovery of his right. Nay, the injury is even increased, when this preclusion is founded upon some obsolete principle, which affords a show, or more properly a mockery of justice, to the utter exclusion of the substance and reality.

The other evils which result from a want of system, principle, and theory in our laws, are innumerable. Hence that uncertainty, that chicane, that difficulty, which is ruinous to the suitors, and only profitable to the retainers of the courts of justice. Hence the volumes of contradictory precedents, which render it, in innumerable cases, difficult to pronounce what is the law. Hence, as a shrewd and sarcastic writer observes, "our laws are studied, not to be understood, but to be disputed; not to give information, but to breed confusion." The

The fact is (as was intimated before), one part of our laws is founded upon feudal, another on commercial principles; a code, to be practically good and useful, ought to be founded on the broad basis of general abstract justice. In the detail, it must be adapted in some measure to times and circumstances; but no part ought to be adapted to times which no longer have any connection with the habits or manners of society, or to circumstances which are long and deservedly obsolete.

The SECOND principle that I should insist upon in a code of laws should be *plainness* and *simplicity*. What is intended for the government of *all*, should be clear and plain to all, otherwise men are expected to act according to maxims which they do not comprehend; and this is the greatest of solecisms. It is a very wretched piece of chicanery to say, that the laws of any country may not be made simple, plain, and intelligible. If any one science, if any one exertion of the human mind, admits of simplicity and perspicuity, it is this; the study of nature is necessarily involved in difficulty and obscurity, because the views and designs of Omnipotence must be always difficult to a finite being. The science of theology must ever be, in some measure, obscure, because it relates to the being and attributes of an infinite and all perfect existence. But law relates merely to the common affairs of life; its basis is the simplest branch of ethics, that which regards the transfer of property, and the common duties of honesty and justice. It is surprising even how the laws of a country *can be made difficult* or obscure. They can be only so when local and obsolete prejudices are adopted for their basis, and where a fund of ingenuity has for ages been employed to perplex and confound them, for selfish views and private purposes.

In almost every country of Europe, how involved, how difficult, and even uncertain is the law of descents and inheritance. In our own country, volume after volume has been written on the single topic of contingent remainders; and yet the subject remains in doubt and perplexity still.

Nay, we have not in England, and I believe, in few countries on the continent, so much as a book to which we can refer as a standard authority. Our laws are scattered through nearly a thousand volumes, where the laborious professor has to collect them at an infinite expence of

time, or to take them up upon the authority of private compilers, who had no sanction either from the legislature or the courts.

How inconsistent is all this with the simplicity of that never enough to be admired institution, the Trial by Jury; and how ineffectual must such a complex and voluminous system be to the direction and government of a people?

Not only in the laws themselves, but in all the forms of law, simplicity ought to be studied. For instance, there is not a more verbose, intricate, or expensive process, than that of a common recovery:—this, and levying of a fine, are called *Fictions** in law, and the sole object of them is, that when certain parties, who have a contingent or entailed right in an estate, agree, they may, in legal language, *bar* the entail or the dower; in other words, limit the disposition of a testator. Now, would it not save much labour and expence, if the whole of this *false* and tedious process was simplified; and since it is now established, that the agreement of certain parties shall bar an entail, what more would be necessary than to summon them before a court, and make them record their consent and agreement in the simplest language, and in the fewest words that the case would admit of?

The language of the law ought also to be the simplest that could be adopted. In this country for instance, whatever was formerly the intention or the use of *special* pleadings, it is well known, that at present the *mesne* process has no influence in

* The very name of *fiction* should be avoided in the administration of justice, the very object of which is truth. Every thing that tends to vitiate the moral principle should be rejected. Criminal jurisprudence is not the object of this paper, otherwise it would be proper to notice, that the oath of jurymen and witnesses is very frequently violated from a necessary attention to mercy, in particular cases. I allude to the returning of a false valuation of an article stolen in the indictment or verdict, lest the culprit should be convicted of a capital offence. If we are to retain for ages the full severity of our penal code, it would be much the surest and safest way, by a new act of parliament, to enable jurymen, instead of pronouncing "guilty to the value of," to pronounce at once "guilty of a capital, or of a clergyable felony:" still having it understood, that stealing to a certain amount was a capital offence, except in case of some particular extenuating circumstances in the discretion of the jury.

the determination, and the pleadings are scarcely even referred to on the trial; and yet an error or mistake in the pleadings may prove an obstruction to the objects and purposes of substantial justice; besides that, they serve greatly to enhance the expence. Now, as this is the case, why should not the parties, upon every occasion, be directed to plead the general issue, and leave the investigation of the cause, as it in fact now is, entirely to the court and jury which are to try it?

As my professed object is civil jurisprudence, I forbear to notice the gross absurdity that a *flaw* in an indictment, an error in language, sometimes accidental, but, I am told, sometimes also intentional, in the clerk of the court, should completely obstruct and defeat the process of justice in the prosecution of an offender.

THIRDLY. From a total disregard to these principles results not only the uncertainty, but the *intolerable expence*, in obtaining justice. I think I may say, in every part of Europe, and certainly among ourselves, *Nulli vendemus justitiam*, is one of the sacred maxims of our Magna Charta; but surely, without any violation of language, or of decency (and I wish to offend against neither), it may be said, that wherever the expences of law suits are so enormous, that none but a very rich, or a very imprudent man, dares to engage in them, justice is virtually bought and sold.

It is a base and trifling quibble of the Demetrius's of the law, that the great expences of law suits serve to counteract the spirit of litigation. Such reasoning reminds me of Muley Ishmael's mode of preventing robberies, by extirpating the whole inhabitants of a country, men, women, and children, where a robbery was committed. Certainly, if the expences of law-suits are such as to disable a poor man from seeking redress, and to deter every application to the courts of justice, except where the object is considerable, the number of law-suits, upon arithmetical principles, must be proportionably lessened. But in such a country, can it be said, that justice is fairly and impartially administered? Let any penalties, which the legislature shall direct be laid upon the suitor, who shall commence a vexatious and malignant action, and let them be enforced at the discretion of the court and jury; but let not the honest plaintiff be deterred, by the shameful expence of obtaining justice, from bringing his wrongs before the bar of his country.

I might indeed turn the argument against my opponents, and I might say, that in a country where the expences of a law-suit are so enormous, as when protracted for any length of time, to beggar any man who is not very opulent, and where the taxed costs, which are allowed, seldom amount to a *third part* of the actual expences, the strongest inducement is held forth to malicious persons to *commence* a suit upon frivolous pretexis.

I know many persons, who would rather give up a small matter of property than risk the expence and evils of a law-suit, however unjust the plea of the plaintiff; and I knew one melancholy instance in a sister kingdom, where, unhappily, there is rather more of a litigious spirit than in this, in which an equity suit (as it was called) was commenced and carried on precisely upon these diabolical principles, and ended in the ruin of the unfortunate defendant and his family.

This could not have been the case in America, where, as Mr. Barlow states, the whole expences of a law-suit amount to only *ten shillings*.

It is the expence of the law which creates the great grievance of our process and imprisonment for debt. The evil is not that a man, who has imprudently, and wickedly, perhaps, incurred a considerable debt to an industrious tradesman, suffers the loss of liberty; but that a poor man, who, in the full prospect of being able to pay, runs in debt to the amount of a few guineas, but by the unwarrantable expences of a law process, which he is unable to avert, is involved in costs to the amount of at least *ten* times that sum; is ruined and imprisoned, not by his own folly and injustice, but by the folly and injustice of the laws.

One chief cause of this enormous expence is the employment of advocates, or counsel; a body of men for which there could be no use if the laws were only simplified and reduced to a system. Indeed, I am much disposed to question their utility in any circumstances. As far as regards the examination of witnesses, the person who conducts the suit ought to be fully adequate, and, even from his previous knowledge, more capable than a stranger. As to oratory, it never can be essential to the investigation of truth; and if it has any effect upon a trial, that effect must be a bad one. If the *truth* is fairly displayed upon the face of the evidence (and it can come out no other way), surely there is no danger of an honest jury judging otherwise.

wife than according to right. What effect then can eloquence possibly have, but to warp or confound the judgment of the jury? And indeed, of what use is the judge, but to explain the law, and to elucidate and sum up the evidence to the jury? And this being the case, what possible plea can be urged for the employment of counsel, and the enormous emoluments which they derive from the misery and distress of their fellow-creatures?

FOURTHLY. There ought to be *one law*, one form of administering justice, in every nation. I believe most people in Great Britain are agreed with respect to our ecclesiastical and other courts, where the civil law is the criterion of justice. But there is another topic on which there is less harmony of opinion, only, I believe, because it is less understood, and that is what are called *Courts of Equity*. It is obvious, that to make any distinction between *Equity* and *Law* is a burlesque upon the *latter*. But the truth is, in the matter in question, no such distinction exists, except where the absurd relics of the feudal system interfere; the basis of our law is, or ought to be, equity; and our courts of equity are as much bound by precedent and absolute law as the other courts. It has been an erroneous opinion, that the courts of equity are intended to abate the rigour of the common law; but whoever will look into Judge Blackstone's third volume, will see that no such power is contended for, nor can possibly be exercised.

The only advantages which our courts of equity possess, may, in fact, be confined to two instances: 1st. In certain cases it may be useful to examine the parties themselves in a suit upon oath, which cannot be done in a court of common law; but the courts of equity are invested with this authority. 2dly. A court of common law admits only of oral evidence; whereas in a court of equity, interrogatories administered to a witness residing in a foreign country, and his depositions taken, are competent evidence. Now could any thing be more easy than to invest the common law courts with a discretionary authority in these two instances, and to submit the mass of evidence thus collected to the judgment of a jury? Or can there be any reason whatever for creating a distinct court, merely to supply these two defects in our national Jurisprudence?

Not to speak of the expence, of the tediousness of the process, of the discrepancy of the forms from that excellent practice established in our common law courts, I

cannot help considering the present courts of equity as an *actual violation of the British constitution*. It is the vital principle of that constitution, decidedly expressed in the *Magna Charta*,—"That no man shall be taken or imprisoned, or deprived of any *property*, privilege, or franchise, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land."—Now, supposing (which however many will not admit) that the words, *law of the land*, form an exception to the trial by jury in certain cases, this must, at all events, necessarily refer to some tribunal existing at the period when the *Magna Charta* was enacted (possibly to the trials and appeals before the House of Lords). Now, the Court of Chancery is a fungus arising, God knows how! out of the arbitrary power claimed by some of our ancient monarchs to interfere in the processes of the common law courts; and its jurisdiction was certainly unheard of for centuries after the enacting of *Magna Charta*. Can any thing then be more absurd, than, when the constitution of Great Britain says expressly,—"That no man shall be judged as to his person or property, otherwise than by the verdict of his peers or equals!"—to leave one-third of the property (as to value) which is brought into litigation, at the arbitrary and discretionary authority of a SINGLE JUDGE! and (to heighten the absurdity) that Judge dependant and removeable at the pleasure of the crown!

If the trial by jury is a privilege which is worth contending for—if the mode of administering of justice in our common law courts is (as I really think) worthy in most respects of admiration, how are we to account for the public solecism of permitting this gross innovation on the constitution—this entire neglect of those palladiums of British liberty—"The Trial by Jury, and the Law of the Land!"

Such are my sentiments, in general, on this important subject. It appears plain to me, that a perfect and rational code of civil law must be systematical and harmonious, not founded on jarring principles, or inconsistent systems of civil policy. That it should be simple and intelligible to the people, whose guide and direction, as to their civil conduct, it is intended to be; that justice, in a well regulated state, should be administered *gratis*, or nearly so; and that there should be but one system of law and justice to pervade the realm. In speaking upon this subject

subject I have been obliged to take my instances from our own laws, not because I think them worse than our neighbours, for I really believe them better than those of most other countries; but because I am better acquainted with them, and because being better known in this country, the instances adduced will be less liable to controversy.

I am far from wishing any harsh or violent alterations in the existing government or constitution of this country. The laws of England, as well as those of most countries, will one day or other call for a revision,—but that revision could not be effected amidst the confusion and calamity of a revolution in government.—It will (whenever it takes place) be the work of a patriot king, and of some great, independent, and popular minister*.

I have not the vanity to believe, that any thing I am able to produce could be conducive to so noble an end as the reform of the principles of law, farther than in this one view,—that it may serve, in some measure, to attract the attention of abler men, both in this country and in others, to a subject which has hitherto been too much neglected; that it may, perhaps, be followed by an ampler investigation by persons more versed in legal science, who, by the clash of sentiment, may elicit truth.

For the Monthly Magazine.

CALCULATIONS FOR ASCERTAINING
THE ÆRA OF CHRIST'S NATIVITY.

THE æra, which we christians now use, was first settled by *Dionysius Exiguus*, a monk, in the reign of *Justinian*, the Roman emperor.—This is now commonly called the vulgar æra, and places the birth of Christ in the end of the 4947th year of the world. But the learned *Joseph Scaliger* (who by an ingenious argument, drawn from the courses of the priests, as settled by *David*, and the birth of John the Baptist, has placed the nativity of Christ in the latter end of September, or the beginning of October, according to the Old Style), was of opinion, that

* The necessity of a reform in the practice of the courts of law in this country is so universally admitted, that it is confidently affirmed that it was publicly and forcibly urged lately from the bench, by one of the most respectable and independent judges that ever presided in the King's Bench.

we were too backward in our reckoning by almost two years. *Susygi*, a Polander, supposed that the error amounted to full four years; and there is another who would make it amount to five years.

As Scaliger endeavoured to determine the time of Christ's nativity by the courses of the priests; so may we likewise endeavour to confirm the vulgar Christian æra by the full moon which happened about the time of our Saviour's death, and the full moon which happened in the year 1762. The data we must proceed upon, are:

1. The day on which that new moon happened, which was either upon, or nearest to the vernal equinox, and was the first day of the Jewish ecclesiastical year, consequently the full moon must at that time have happened upon the 15th day of the Jewish month *Abib* or *Nisan*.

2. It is certain, that our Saviour suffered on the 14th day of the Jewish month *Nisan*, which was then our Friday, and answered partly to the second, and partly to the third of April. See *Uther's Annals*, and *Echard's Ecclesiastical History*. Therefore, the greater part of the 15th of *Nisan* answered to our third of April.

3. The metonic, or lunar cycle, does not consist precisely of nineteen years, but it precedes the Julian year by 1^h. 27' 32".

For in 19 Julian years	days.	hours.	m.	sec.
of 365 ^d . 6 ^h .	there are	6939	18	0 0
And in 235 lunar months				
of 29 ^d . 12 ^h . 44' 3"		6939	16	32 28

Difference	1 27 32
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4. Our Lord suffered, according to *Uther* and *Echard*, in the thirty-third year of his age.

5. In 91 periods of 19 years (*i. e.* from A. D. 33 to A. D. 1762) 1^h. 27' 32" will amount to 5^d. 12^h. 45' 32".

Now then, as we are very sure that A. D. 33, the full moon happened on some part of the 15th day of *Nisan*, so we may suppose that it happened about the 14th hour of that day; that is, allowing for the difference of longitude, it happened on our April 3d, 6^h. A. M. the Old Style. From that time subtract 5^d. 12^h. 45' 32" and we shall come to March 28th, 17^h. 14' 28", 1762, Old Style; that is April 8th, about five in the afternoon, N. S. Now, about that time, a full moon did happen at London, and therefore our present æra is the true one.

Augustus died upon the 19th of August, A. D. 14; and Tacitus informs us, that *Tiberius* was scarce seated on the throne, when the legions in *Pannonia* revolted. The emperor immediately dispatched his son *Drusus* to reduce those legions to their duty. *Drusus* having read his father's letters, and received their demands, made a reply, which instead of abating, inflamed their rage. They assaulted his principal attendant, *Cneius Lentulus*, with stones, and had certainly dispatched him, had he not been rescued by the troops he had brought with him; but their interposition did not quell the tumult. Yet the mischiefs which that night threatened were entirely prevented by the moon. For while the sky was remarkably serene and clear, the moon, on a sudden, seemed to lose her light, and by degrees was totally involved in darkness. The legions, ignorant of the real cause, supposed that the Gods had then testified their displeasure at the mutiny; and *Drusus*, artfully improving the opportunity, soon reduced them to their duty. This is the account which *Tacitus* has given us of that eclipse; and according to *Calvisius*, it happened the 27th September, about five in the morning.

Now by the method proposed, it will appear that the eclipse happened in the evening of the 27th of September, A. D. 14.—For from the year 14, to 1762, are 92 cycles of the moon; and in 92 cycles, $1^h. 27' 32''$, amount to $5^d. 14^h. 13' 4''$.—We find in 1762 a full moon happened at London, October 3d, 4^h . in the morning, or, according to the Old Style, September 22d, 4^h . in the morning, to which if we add $5^d. 14^h. 13' 4''$ we come to September 27th, about six in the evening, that is, allowing for the difference of longitude between London and Pannonia, it happened about eight o'clock in the evening of September the 27th, that is about two hours after sun-set; and though this does not exactly agree with the calculation of *Calvisius*, still it does not vary much, and which may be accounted for, either from an inaccuracy of *Calvisius*, or an error in the moon's theory. It is certain, from the account of *Tacitus*, that the eclipse happened in the evening; for the outrage offered to *Lentulus*, and the behaviour of the legions upon his rescue, threatened a terrible succeeding night, and the mischief was prevented by the eclipse; therefore the eclipse must have happened in the evening of that night. *Drusus* employed

some agents to improve the superstitious notions which had seized the legions; and in the morning, as soon as it was light, (*orto die*, says *Tacitus*) he arranged them afresh and succeeded. Hence, I think, we may fairly and safely conclude, that the present date of the year of our Lord is right.

Whoever will consult the learned *Mede*, will soon be convinced that the Jewish feast of tabernacles was typical of the birth or incarnation of our Saviour.—And that our Lord was born near that time, is demonstrably certain, from the time of the year it fell to *Zacharias*'s lot to burn incense. *Scaliger* says, that he entered upon that office on the 21st of July; I differ only two days from him, and make the Jewish sabbath to fall that year on the 23d and 24th of July.—And it is very remarkable, and deserves particular notice, that the primitive church of Alexandria, famous for its chronology, celebrated the nativity of John the Baptist on the 23d of our April, which is exactly nine months after his father *Zacharias* began to offer incense. The consequence must be, that our Saviour was conceived about the end of January, and was born about the end of our September, which answers exactly to the time of the Jewish feast of tabernacles, which begin on the 15th of their month *Tsiri*. But if the feast of tabernacles was typical of our Saviour's incarnation; and in order to that he must needs have been born on some one day which fell within the eight days of that feast; then we have all the reason to believe, that he was born on the first day of that feast. The feast of the passover was a type of his death; and on the very day in which they killed the passover, that is on the first day of that feast, our Saviour expired on the cross. The feast of weeks, or Pentecost, was appointed for a remembrance of the law, and for a type of the doctrine of the gospel, that is of the descent of the Holy Spirit; and upon the first day of that feast it descended on the apostles. Thus, as two of the grand Jewish types were fulfilled on the first day of their respective feasts, we may, by analogy, conclude, that on the very day on which the Jews began to dwell in booths, or tabernacles, was our Lord tabernacled in our flesh; that is, on the 15th day of the Jewish month *Tsiri*, was our Saviour born. We will now proceed to enquire what day in our calendar corresponded to the

the 15th of the month *Tsiri*.—We are certain, that the month *Tsiri* answered partly to our October, and that the new moon began the month. Now, from the birth of Christ to the year 1767, are 93 cycles of the moon, or so many periods of 19 years; and in that number of periods $1^h. 27' 32''$, will amount to $5^d. 15^h. 40' 36''$. In the year 1767 a new moon happened at London, Sept. 23, N. S. or Sept. 12, O. S. at $2^h. 48'$ in the morning, that is, allowing for the difference of longitude, it happened at *Jerusalem* Sept. 12, at about 5^h in the morning; to that time add $5^d. 15^h. 40' 36''$, and we shall have Sept. 17^d. 10^h. $40' 36''$ for the day of the new moon, when our Lord was born; consequently the latter end of our then Sept. 17th was the beginning of the first day of the Jewish month *Tsiri*; and therefore the 15th of that month, that is, the beginning of it, the first day of the feast of tabernacles, was the day of the birth of our Saviour, and was the latter end of our then October, 1st, which day was then our Saturday; and thus our Lord was born on the beginning of that Jewish day, which was afterwards the Christian sabbath. Upon the whole, then, we may conclude, that since we have altered our style, we ought to celebrate the nativity of our Saviour on the 12th day of October.

All these proofs amount to this; that the vulgar *æra*, from the 33d and 14th year of it to the present time, is truly settled, according to astronomical principles. But the question we want to have determined still remains unsettled, namely, whether the commencement of the Dionysian *æra* is that of the real Christian *æra*? For, unless we could have this proved, the real year of Christ's birth remains as uncertain as ever.

The method taken is, undoubtedly, one of the most probable that can be, and best adapted to extricate us out of the difficulties that embarrass chronology: for it is only from a careful comparison of history with eclipses, that we can hope to adjust the different opinions of authors upon these subjects.

It is an happiness that the theory of the moon is so well established; and that in such a number of periods of 91, 92, or 93, the intervals between the new moons should be so small, and easy to be calculated; yet this kind of proof, valuable as it is, will never ascertain the vulgar *æra* to be the true one, as it is certainly

founded upon a mistake. The error that misled *Dionysius*, and all the world, arose from a misrepresentation of the words of *St. Luke*, ch. iii, v. 23, which supposes, that Jesus was about *thirty years* of age the 15th of *Tiberius*; whereas the words import no more, than that when Jesus began his ministry, or to shew himself unto *Israel*, he was about 30 years of age, which might precede his baptism two years at least, as some time must have elapsed between his leaving *Galilee* and coming to the south of *Jordan*, where *John* was, about that time, (that is in the 15th of *Tiberius*) preaching and baptizing.—The greatest service that has been done, is the having fixed the 15th of *Tiberius* with some degree of certainty and precision, and consequently the year of our Lord's baptism.—For, from the account given by *Tacitus*, of the eclipse, and the beginning of *Tiberius's* reign, the evidence is as satisfactory as can be wished; namely, that his reign commenced the latter end of the 14th year of the vulgar *æra*, the 4742d of the *Julian* period, the first of the 202d *Olympiad*, 782d of the building of Rome (*C. Fusius Geminus* and *L. Rubellius Geminus* being consuls), 776th of *Nabonassar*, the cycle of the moon being 11, of the sun 10, dom. letter c. (N. S.) and the first after leap-year.

From the knowledge of the true year of Christ's baptism, we may probably come with certainty also to the real year of Christ's death, as most interpreters agree that four passovers intervened between those two events; and this will bring us to the 33d of the vulgar *æra*, the very year that *Eusebius* has made the fixed point of his calculations, and which many learned men thought the real year of Christ's death.—But, as there are different opinions on this matter, we will leave it to farther consideration, whether or no these calculations may not be applied with advantage in reconciling the disagreements we find in writers upon this subject, and particularly those of two astronomers of this country, *Ferguson* and *Emerson*: this first in his astronomy says, that a Friday passover full moon fixes the time of our Lord's death to the 3d of April, in the 33d year of the vulgar *æra*; whereas the latter says, that it is extremely probable that his passion was in the year 34, on Friday the 14th day of the month *Nisan*, which, by the *Julian* account, was on Friday the 23d of April.

For the Monthly Magazine.

A FREE DISSERTATION ON THE NATIONAL ADVANTAGES OF AN ABOLITION OF TITHES BY PURCHASE; AND A MORE EQUAL PAYMENT OF THE CLERGY.

IT is not in this period of knowledge and experience *to be proved*, because the general voice of the public has established the fact, that *Tithes*, as they now stand, are a most formidable bar to the greatest improvements of agriculture. This fact is asserted by men of all ranks, and of most denominations. Even the clergy themselves, or a large part of them, are supposed to be assenting to the general proposition. The difficulty which lies in the way of some of that body, who hesitate concerning an alteration in the Tithe system is, *How a change shall be made which may not injure their particular Interests, and endanger the stability of a national Religious Establishment?*—That a national religious establishment is a national good, they may be well expected to believe, as an important truth; and the opinion of many of the laity of the national church is, perhaps, equally strong in favour of that principle. It shall be granted, for argument's sake, or rather to preclude the necessity of argument in this place, that a national religious establishment may be a national good*. But the mode of supporting such an establishment on the immediate produce of landed labour, is a question of immense magnitude. This will be allowed in the abstract, both by clergy and laity.

If the difficulties which are allowed to attend the present system of Tithes could be happily obviated in a plan for an altered system, reason presumes, with authority, that an universal acclamation of the laity would ensue! That it has not yet been shewn with a clearness equal to the importance of the subject, may be allowed with probability, notwithstanding the professed candour, the learning and elo-

* I have said *may be*, not because I am desirous of insinuating a *doubt* on the subject (for contention or disparagement are not my objects) but because it is not a *demonstrable* proposition. It is not *demonstrable* that a national religious establishment is essential either to the advancement of real religion or the peace and prosperity of civil government; but it is better to have it thought so, under rational regulations of emolument, than to disturb unnecessarily the prejudices and tranquillity of the people.

quence of ages. But the fact of its not having yet been happily shewn is no proof of the impossibility of the thing in question—And it cannot therefore be a clear presumptive proof, that the object lies beyond the power of human sagacity, aided by a sincere desire to do good.

If the well-meaning author of the essay should be thought to have failed in his humble attempt to serve his country, he must submit without arrogance to superior opinion; and if he shall stand acquitted, as he trusts he shall, of any improper motives, he shall stand resigned to his ill success.

Many have been the schemes of men of considerable ingenuity and more goodwill, for a partial modification, principally in favour of the *superior* clergy, by promoting their ease, and for securing a more amicable intercourse between them and their parishioners.—This, so far as it may be practicable, would be a desirable step; but it has been observed already, and should ever be kept in view, that *their* share of the Tithes of the nation, and the inquietudes attendant upon them, are comparatively a small part of the grievance: and in justice to the generality of the clergy, it must be allowed to their honour, that, dependent as they are for subsistence upon Tithes, as by law established, a spirit of liberality pervades their order, which seems not to be generally equalled among the lay impropiators. I do not intend a flattering encomium on the clergy; but from close observation I believe this to be a fact: and for a proof of my opinion I need only refer to the numerous modern decisions of courts in their favour, when questions concerning their right have been agitated.

But not to digress from the subject of proposed *remedies*, I repeat again, that those schemes which have been held forth have generally been partial, and, as might be expected, from partial plans wholly inadequate to a national cure of the evil complained of. *How it could be possible to suggest a mode of regulation, suited to the several descriptions of Tithe incumbrance in this country?* The general answer to such an enquiry would be short, and such as in the apprehension of former superstitious times might have been productive of alarm; but now neither alarming to reason nor religion:—

A COMPLETE ANNIHILATION OF TITHES THROUGHOUT THE REALM!!!

This, and nothing short of this, it is presumed, would be effectual to the production

duction of all that advantage, all that happiness, which we may hope is reserved for the present age to commence the dispensation of!

The different descriptions of Tithes are too well known to require particular explanation; but there is *no* description but what is capable of *valuation*: and whatever may be fairly *valued*, may be fairly *bought* and *annihilated* for ever.

The calculation, whatever it shall happen, will be no difficult task for persons of common capacity and skill in the value of land. Of such men, in the present state of agricultural knowledge, enough may be selected in this country to value twenty times the quantity required to be valued, I would therefore propose the following outline of a plan, to be presented to Parliament, as the basis of a general act, for the purpose aforesaid:

1. That a law be passed, to authorise and compel the owners of all titheable lands and property throughout the realm to purchase the Tithe of the same, on a fair valuation, within a time to be limited.

2. That by such law, the gentlemen land-owners in each county, to be assembled at the quarter sessions, or in some other public manner, be required to nominate a suitable number of persons, considered as the most skilful in the value of lands in their respective districts, to be returned as such to parliament on a given day, out of which persons a proper number to be selected and appointed as commissioners, for estimating the value of the Tithes of each county or district. In the proceedings of such persons to value, the person immediately interested in the valuation and purchase to have the liberty, if he shall so chuse, of appointing some one or more person or persons, according to a certain rule or proportion, to act with, and assist such parliamentary commissioners in determining the value.

3. That the persons appointed be required to proceed in their office, under the usual qualification of an oath, or affirmation, to do justice according to the best of their knowledge and belief, without favour or affection. And this judicial test, upon which matters of still greater consequence, even personal liberty, life and death, are made to depend, will doubtless be deemed sufficient.—The majority to determine the value in question.

4. That every valuation shall be laid before the quarter sessions, or such county meeting as shall be specially appointed

for that end, previous to its being returned to parliament; at which quarter sessions, or county or other meeting, any person may have a right of appeal, for amendment of the valuation, if, in the opinion of three or more reputable land-owners of the district, he can shew reasonable cause of dissatisfaction.—And the meeting to have full power of altering any valuation which it may think erroneous; but if it shall appear to them that the complaint is ill-founded, their decision, in favour of the valuation, to be final.

5. That returns be made to parliament of the amount and particulars of the valuation in each district or county within one year, or within eighteen months next after the passing of the act, and all Tithes and out-goings to cease at a stated time, only sufficiently distant from the day of parliamentary ratification to admit of the purchaser's completing his title.

6. That the amount of sales of the Tithes appertaining to *laymen* (however originally acquired) being now legally vested in them, and their heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns, be taken by the owners, without deduction, whether those owners be individuals or trustees for particular uses; but if the latter, that they be bound forthwith to vest the money in government securities, the interest to be applied from time to time to the ends of the original appointment; save and except in instances where parliament, after mature deliberation, shall deem the object superstitious or unworthy.—And in such cases parliament to have the power of abrogation, and of applying such money either to the founding of some charity, most congenial to the circumstances of the district, or towards the lessening the debt of the nation.

7. That the purposes to which the said income shall be for ever applied, shall be,
1. The maintenance of the whole clergy of the national church; 2. The building and reparation of houses for their dwelling; 3. The occasional reparation or building of the places of worship appertaining to the establishment.

The foregoing objects struck me as proper for the application of the aggregate income; and I have extended them to the number set down, because they seem to be naturally connected, and parts, *although not all the parts*, of the original appropriation of tithes in this country. I have also *so far* extended them, because I have no doubt it will be found, that the income from the fund,

to be raised from the sale of appropriated tithes *, will be fully equal to such a three-fold application.

But although an individual may suggest what appears to him best, and most proper for the occasion, the application of surplus money may be left with due deference to the wisdom of parliament, under the direction of which we may reasonably and respectfully trust it will not be misapplied.

With regard to such lands as remain attached to parsonages and livings, throughout the nation, I see no reason why they should not be sold, save such garden, orchard, and small pasture grounds, as are commonly found attached to the dwellings of the clergy. The more simple and uniform the system of support is made for them, the more correspondent with the harmony that should subsist internally among themselves, as well as between them and their respective churches.

But the sale of such lands being an object entirely distinct from removing the burden of tithes from agriculture, may be omitted, and remain a subject of future consideration. A non-essential alteration need not be contended for; and if experience shall prove, that such lands, remaining in the hands of the clergy, are as well cultivated by them, or their tenants, at their own pleasure, as they would be if otherwise disposed of, it will be the same thing to the nation.

Should such a general alteration as I have been suggesting ever happily take place, it may become the province of the legislature to consider (for the general interest of religion and the clergy) what descriptions of the clergy, or rather what distinctions of the clerical office, may be spared, particularly such as stand invested with local privileges and immunities, non-essential to general comfort and happiness, or to their service as preachers of righteousness.

Suffice it to say in this place, that notwithstanding some are beneficed, far beyond what their office or their reasonable wants require, while the majority either have no income at all, or not a respectable one, I would not go so far as to propose any diminution of income from any during their life.

* It may only be necessary for a few of my readers to be informed, that this term applies to those tithes only which remain to church uses: those in the hands of lay-proprietors are called *unappropriated* tithes, and hence their owners are called *impropriators*.

When a man, who is not very indifferent to the things of this world, has once been seated for life in a state of affluence and splendor, it must be irksome to him to be deprived of it. The act may be deemed illiberal, if not unjust; and as human life soon passes away, so the burden, in most instances which may be considered as exceptionable, would soon be removed. And as death dissolves the possessor, the possession to another, being no matter of right, may be modified to a proper standard.

That those who bear the same common distinction of bishop may be consistently allowed the same common income, it is presumed, will need but little proof. And if one of that distinction can subsist in sufficient splendor on 1-4th or 1-6th of what others receive, the *excess* may not, by reflecting men, be deemed necessary. And the nation may well be the judge, where the nation is to pay.

The incomes of the different bishops are supposed to vary, from near 20,000l. down to less than 1000l. per ann. if those annexed to the sees of Canterbury, York, Durham, Winchester, Ely, &c. shall be allowed, by the best friends to the true interests of the church of England, to be great and superfluous beyond all ideas of propriety, for men who are to set the examples, and enforce the precepts of the Christian religion,---a religion, the essence and character of which is *lowliness* and *simplicity*, a religion which is in eternal opposition to every thing that induces pride, sensuality, and voluptuousness; surely a gradual reform of such extravagances will not be deemed improper. The pious and exemplary Wilson, bishop of *Sodor* and *Man*, is an eminent instance how much dignity and usefulness, in the prelatical character, may be compatible with a moderate income. But we will not presume to suggest a diminution down to double the income which that venerable man possessed, and by the wise and benevolent management of which he rendered himself so much like the temporal father of his flock!

As we discuss this subject in the West of England, we may take the liberty of asking our neighbour, the bishop of Bristol, whether, moderately beneficed as he is, his income be not sufficient to procure him all the rational comforts which a chief minister of the meek and lowly Jesus can want, for himself and family? We might even presume to go a little further, and ask another prelate, famous for his learning, talents, and usefulness;

usefulness; we might ask the respectable bishop of Llandaff the same plain question *. From their well known candour we can participate their answer. They would doubtless confess, that the *services* of their function were sufficiently paid for. Now suppose (if it should be deemed, on mature reflection, for the good of the church) that the successors of the two present archbishops should be allowed each double the present income of the two bishops, last mentioned, *put together*! Will any man say, that such a mode of calculating would be degrading or improper? But if the sum be deemed insufficient, it may be increased till parliament be satisfied. And should parliament think proper to fix the income of other succeeding bishops at 1500l. per ann. or vary them from 1500l. to 2000l. † sufficient outward dignity might be thereby provided for, and sufficient reward for those spiritual labours, which, whenever they are the most effectual and sincere, are sure to produce an *internal reward*, superior to all other possible benefits!

If it should be thought right to retain exactly the present description of church dignity, between the bishop and the common minister, it may be deemed a proper regulation, that no future dean, archdeacon, &c. should have more than *double*, or *treble*, the highest allowance to be limited by the common ministers of the church.

It is not a *principal* object of this essay to discuss the quantum of allowance that would be proper to those classes of the clergy, which may be deemed necessary to the oeconomy of the church; but some thoughts on the subject flow, not unnaturally, out of the subject of tithes, when a substitute for them is professedly under consideration: and such a branch of our treatise will be less liable to objection, from the clergy and their best friends, when it shall be evident the writer is far more a friend than an enemy to them, by the *general* improvement of secular interests which he proposes.

The inequality of allowance to the lower ranks of the clergy is so shame-

fully great, on the present system, that he must be blind, and callous to all generous sentiment, who cannot see and disapprove that inequality; and who can be silent, when he has an opportunity of remarking how ineffectual the present vexatious load of tithes is to the comfort of those originally intended to be maintained by them? If the greater part of the livings in England and Wales are too small for the decent subsistence of a clergyman's family (which will be readily granted), and if the average salaries of the curacies paid to the non-residences are less than the wages of a mechanick (which is considered as the fact), the abolition of tithes, and an equality of allowance in lieu of them, will surely be considered as a friendly proposition! I will therefore hazard an opinion thus:

Suppose then, parliament, setting the education and pretensions of an educated clergyman above those of a common exciseman (worse than whom many of them are now paid), should propose to reward them with at *least* 100l. per annum. That this should be the highest sum to be granted to any of the present highly beneficed vicars and rectors I do not pretend to suggest; it is not my province to propose an absolute *limitation* to this, or a sum considerably larger; but if a scholar, who must not work as other men, is to be paid for his studies and his time, in a function called sacred and important, it may not be thought reasonable that he should have a *less* allowance annexed to his *residence* than 100l. per annum! The allowance may be varied upwards to 150l. or 200l.; such augmentations to be *affixed* to the most populous districts, and to bear certain proportion to the whole number of livings; as, for instance, *as one to three*, or any other proportion, by way of giving encouragement to supposed merit, and aiding those clergymen who have large and increasing families.

The *collation* of bishops having been from time immemorial vested in the crown, as temporal head of the church, it will of course be deemed right that it should there remain; and as such an appointment implies a sanction of high descent, it may be considered as proper, that all the present powers of appointment to livings may continue annexed to the different bishopricks, because the bishops (thus supposed to be worthily appointed) will be likely to give general satisfaction in the selections they shall make. Indeed, it will not appear a matter of necessity consequent

* No person, surely, can attempt to justify the enormous difference between the income from the see of this good man, and those before mentioned!

† It is probable, that, in addition to the episcopal salary, the living, appertaining to the parish in which the bishop resides, may be vested in him; out of which the chaplain, resident in his house, may be paid.

sequent upon the extinction of Tithes, that any other description of patronage, now subsisting, should be changed. For, on the contrary, it may be judged a matter of prudence, that as little alteration as possible should be made in the article of patronage, so that the main ends, *removing the national inconvenience of Tithes; establishing a regulation of payment compatible with the fund; and more equal justice to the clergy*, be obtained.

If it should be thought a matter of justice to lay patrons (unconnected with estates in Tithes) to make them an allowance for the necessary abridgement of their power of presentation to livings, which before were upwards of 200l. per annum, such allowance may be made from the general fund, according to the estimates that the commissioners may make of the decreased value of any estate so to be abridged of its power of future presentation. Where, for instance, the owner of an estate, not being in Tithe, was privileged to present to a living worth 400l. per annum, and the living afterwards to be presented to be only 200l. per annum, the commissioners will have to settle how much the estate may be now deemed less in value, by the reduction of one half of its privilege of future presentation; and so much money the owner will have to receive*. The principles of this rule, applied to all varieties of cases, and taken in connection with the age of the present incumbent, will be found sufficient for the purpose. Where a right of presentation is annexed to an *Estate in Tithes*, in the hands of a *layman*, that estate being designed to be wholly abolished, the value of the presentation may, of course, be wholly brought into the estimate, and paid for; and the right of presentation may, most naturally and properly, go to the bishop of the diocese.

Where such right of presentation may be found vested in corporate bodies, and unconnected with saleable property, if any material alteration should be made in the future value of the living, any consideration of a money payment may be omitted, as a thing of small importance to the in-

dividuals of such a body, and therefore not of importance to interfere with the interest of the fund. If the right be found attaching to a clerical corporation, as dean and chapter, &c. in connection with Tithes, or without, the consideration would be more, less, or nothing, according to the nature of the case; the whole of the clergy, and all standing clerical establishments, having a general interest, for the good of the whole, in the largeness and permanency of the national fund, to be established by sales for their support.

The foregoing considerations, on the subject of patronage, go on the principle of rendering an equivalent, if not to a mathematical nicety (which is neither probable nor important), yet, as nearly as may be, in the opinion of impartial men, for whatever shall be given up; and it is not to be doubted, that the fund will be equal to such extra allowances, without trenching upon its main objects.

But were this article of the supposed value of patronage to be provided for, at once, out of the national purse, as the whole amount of it would not be very heavy, it might be deemed the most simple and magnanimous mode of settlement; and it is presumable, that many public-spirited gentlemen, in consideration of the public good, and to simplify and facilitate the grand advantage in view, would forego, voluntarily, any such (to them) unimportant consideration.

I have said above, not less than 100l. per annum, *annexed to residence*; for whenever a regulation in these matters shall take place, worthy of the good sense of the nation, I presume the practice of *non-residence* will be deemed a proper object of prohibition; save in cases of accidental necessity. There can be no personal hardship in such a branch of reform; and whoever worthily desires to become a teacher of his brethren, will find his satisfaction closely connected with dwelling among those whom he has undertaken to teach. Whoever shall have other views in soliciting the station of a spiritual teacher, will give proof, at once, that he is unfit for so important a trust.

Such an allowance as I have mentioned, periodically and punctually paid, in addition to a snug warm dwelling, and a garden and orchard, which may afford a beneficial and healthful employment of a part of their time, would set the clergy in general on a much more respectable footing, in worldly matters, than they are now

* This idea of settlement may not accurately include the possible advance in the value of Tithes above £.400 per annum, because the exact progress of such advance, if advance could have certainly accrued, cannot be ascertained; but the estimates may be sufficiently correct for national benefit, in such cases.

now on; and make their general circumstances abundantly more easy than they have long been—even supposing they were to be wholly without fortunes of their own; but supposing some considerable part of their number, as now, to possess patrimony, or a decent income, in their own right, surely the rewards proposed must be sufficiently ample.

Should an idea be started, as may probably be the case, that it would be *degrading* the office of a teacher of religion, to have his subsistence paid him in this manner; I would reply, that it seems to me, such an objection can only arise out of a false view of *real dignity*, which is no way affected or lessened by the simplicity, or publicity of the channel, through which a return for its services comes. The most honourable officers of the state, up to the lord chancellor, and even the *Head of the Church*, the king himself, have their stipulated salaries annexed by law to their stations; and where the parties are honest and worthy, no man reasons so ill as to think their office *degraded* by the *mode* of compensation.

The example of some of the best educated, and most exemplary characters in the Christian ministry, among dissenters, by no means favours objections of so proud a nature in any. In most instances, the alteration would be, not only for the ease, but for the increased credit of the clergy, by giving them an *independence* which they now cannot experience; and it certainly must be more dignified to receive in money, paid with regularity, and without trouble, under the immediate authority of parliament, than to procure, with uncertainty, money or goods, as it may happen, at the expence of frequent contention with, and abuse from, persons of soured and illiberal minds.

If it be objected, “that there will be a disadvantage arising to the clergy, from having their income *limited*, however in numerous instances increased at first, because of the *varying*, and, probably, the *decreasing* value of money,” certain considerations come forward against the objection:

1. The clergy, as a body, are but fellow subjects of the government, morally entitled to no particular exemption from the common casualties of human events; and as persons particularly concerned in propagating the doctrines of a divine providence, will doubtless think it right to submit to a dependance on the same foundation with the generality of other persons, considered as honourably em-

ployed in the service of their country.

2. It will always be in the power of government to make further ample provision for their comfort, from period to period, in proportion as the value of money shall be materially altered, and their worthiness shall be seen. Such an exercise of power in their favour they would always be able to propose with facility. Such an alteration they would always be likely to obtain, from the justice and magnanimity of the English nation, whenever it should become proper.

3. Admitting, for a moment, the possibility of some future difficulty, to some small proportion of their order, it is next to impossible that the *majority* should not be *better* paid than on the *present plan*; this must be evident, when the smallness of many of their livings is considered, and the very slow progress of their advancement in value, in numerous places, under the weight of Tithes.

But the consideration of *public advantage*, in giving full scope to improvements, and laying the foundation for plenty, proportionate to an increasing population, would alone be sufficient to satisfy the most liberal among the clergy, and their warmest friends. If, however, it should be objected by any considerable number of the clergy, on behalf of those who are to succeed them, that the foregoing reasons, altogether, are insufficient to satisfy them; and such a general style of objection be considered, by parliament, as of sufficient weight, I would suggest another practicable mode of satisfaction.

The commissioners, in whom the fund should be vested, (who, by the bye, might be one half clergymen, and inclusive of the attorney and solicitor generals, for the time being) might be empowered to lay out the money as fast as opportunities offered, to advantage in *free lands*; which would afterwards yield an income proportioned to their increased nominal value, arising from the progress of improvements, and the decreased value of money. Or,

The commissioners for survey and valuation might, in numerous instances, if not in all, finish the business at once, by allotting and throwing into convenient connexion, *portions of land in each parish*, corresponding in value with their assessments for the sale of Tithes; and thus small and middle-sized farms might be contrived and substituted in lieu of them, which might be an additional advantageous circumstance to the nation, and effectually provide against the fears, how-

ever

ever unnecessary, of the clergy, respecting their successors, or the stability of the church of England.

It is possible, I may be told, by some few of the church, in reply to these last propositions, *that such a security will not be sufficient*, because the farmer may break, or he may run away, or be *very irregular in his payments*, or, instead of *improving*, may *injure* the value of the land; in all or either of which cases the clergyman's interest becomes naturally affected; and he may suffer without the common power of redress*.

It shall be readily granted, there is some possibility of truth in these objections; but if no possibility of inconvenience must be admitted, lest some possible disadvantage, incident to other men, may be sustained, I fear we shall find any plan, however preferable to all others, and to the present unhappy system, liable to rejection. It was on account of simplicity of arrangement, and regularity of payment, that the *funding* of the whole value of Tithes, and a money payment from the produce, have been mainly urged in this treatise, for the adoption of government; and I am fully persuaded that, on the whole, it would be found most convenient, and advantageous to the clergy in general.

I will not think so uncandidly of an educated and philanthropic body of men, as to suppose, that, after all which has been said here (the substance of which may, indeed, be *better* said by others), after all the inconveniences which *they* see arising from the present mode of Tithing, and the complaint *they* continually bear, they will not be satisfied with *any* alteration of their circumstances! This, I will not admit against them as a body, however some rich and worldly-minded individuals may deserve the imputation:--- for such an admission, while it would be extremely uncharitable, would bring the matter to this point; *that they would be satisfied with nothing short of the continuance of a system big with mischief to their country; and by which three-fourths of their order are paid worse than inferior tradesmen, the remainder are living luxuriously on the sweat of industry, and the first fruits of the most expensive improvements.* I will not admit against them as a body such an imputation of disregard to the ge-

* The hazard may, however, be in part obviated, by the trustees holding the collector of rents responsible for their regular payment, which they might easily do, where the risk, under common prudence, is so small.

neral welfare of the country, as would be that of contending for the continuance of an evil, which becomes more heavy and irksome, in proportion as the necessity of experimental improvements in agriculture is found; an evil, which must either be timely removed by political wisdom, or which may, at no very distant period, be the cause of convulsions in this country!

As lovers of agriculture, order, and peace, we cannot but anticipate the benefits of some such change as we have marked out, both as it shall affect the clergy and the general interest.

The priesthood of the church of England may not, indeed, afterwards be resorted to by men in particular connexions, as to a situation of *chances for wealth, splendor, and luxury*; but it would be regarded as a station of sufficient comfort, and of more uniform dignity; it would be more likely to be furnished with men of talents for the ministry than heretofore: men not seeking their own ease and aggrandisement (which are utterly incompatible with the origin of the office) but the benefit and happiness of mankind.

"All this," I may finally be told, "is plausible, and would be very well if effected; but that such plans are merely visionary, they are not reducible to practice."---Such is the short, superficial, and common-place style of answering, for it is not reasoning, on various important subjects: and thus many attempts are suffered to be frustrated, which might be successfully and usefully made. But on such a momentous subject as this, objections should neither be urged for the sake of embarrassment, nor from superficial attention.

I would now endeavour, briefly, to impress the minds of my readers with the *practicability* and different *advantages* of the proposed alteration, under different heads.

I. PRACTICABILITY.

It would be under-valuing the powers of the human mind, by which ordinary plans of oeconomy are accomplished, to suppose they are not equal to such a business as this. It is in itself nothing formidable to human sagacity. Calculations have been made of the most abstruse and difficult nature in mathematics and mechanics, which, from their agreement with facts, have acquired among men of reflective and unprejudiced minds the character of *demonstrations*. And even among men of moderate capacities, valuations of property, under the head of Tithe Estimates, have been easily made in single

single instances, which have given sufficient satisfaction to both parties interested in the question.

There is nothing in a single question which will not apply on general principles to the elucidation of another question of a similar nature; and by the same rule that *two* arrangements may be made, a *whole parish*, or larger district, may be valued; the application of a proportionate attention will effect the valuation of a *county*; and that increased, of the *whole nation*. The common adage "*that many hands make light work*," will apply conclusively on this subject. There is nothing very difficult in valuing the property necessary to be valued, under an act of parliament, for a navigable canal, or the inclosure of open ground; and though in such cases a *perfect exactness* may not be always attainable, an accuracy is commonly arrived at, which either gives or ought to give general content. And, perhaps, though small inequalities may afterwards be surmised, it commonly happens that all parties are in some considerable degree benefited by the accomplishment of the main object.

A national valuation of Tithes is nothing more difficult than an extended valuation of interests, under an *extended inclosure bill*; and indeed though a national valuation may not have been decreed since the famous one of Henry VIII. there is frequently occurring the very nature of it, on a small scale, in all parts of the nation, i. e. the process of COMPOUNDING TITHES for the mutual ease and advantage of the landholder and the tithe claimant, whether civil or ecclesiastical, but more commonly the latter. This frequently occurring compromise, among the most prudent of the clergy, is a strong argument of the utility, and indeed the necessity, of the general valuation proposed, both with regard to the accommodation and general prosperity of the community. The *practicability*, therefore, I presume, must be granted. The *advantages* to the different parties concerned will be fairly inferred; but let us consider them in order.

2. ADVANTAGES TO THE LAND OWNER.

That a very important advantage would be gained to the land owner, from a valuation and discharge of the tithe incumbrance on his land, cannot reasonably be doubted. The universal consent of the owners of property, in favour of an *entire, clear, and definite* title is obvious. No man is so blind to the excellence of a *simple unequivocal* title, as

to prefer a *complicated and uncertain* one. His own immediate ease and pleasure, the simplicity of sale and transfer, and the *certainty*, in those respects, to be transmitted to heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, would be found powerful motives in him to prefer, and earnestly to wish, such a regulation. The facility and certainty with which every land owner, who is about to let his lands, will appreciate their value in rent, will give him continually a satisfaction, which on the present system of Tithe deduction he cannot experience. The idea that his tenant will be unincumbered with arbitrary claims, and unembarrassed in his plans of improvement, will not fail to enhance his attachment to this species of property; and he will have a well-grounded assurance that his property has the fairest chance of being constantly improved by the ingenuity and industry of his tenant: for the greatest interest of the tenant will be generally compatible with the greatest practicable improvement. Thus land, cultivated land, the grand staple article of national consequence and strength, will be constantly and progressively this first object of attention. And from the first foundation and source of materials will arise the surest supply of our trade and manufactures.

3. TO THE YEOMANRY.

This respectable and important class of the nation, heretofore embarrassed in the cultivation and improvement of their possessions, will no longer be cramped and mortified in their exertions, *on their own soil*; but freed from the discouragements of a heavy and vexatious tax on their expenditure and hard labour, will not fail to exert themselves in rendering every corner of their favourite property as productive as possible. A new emulation for improvement will rapidly take place; improvement which, while it enhances the value of the land, doubly enriches the occupier; at the same time the most useful and powerful lessons of agricultural excellence will be held forth to the surrounding tenantry: an incitement this, which must be attended with the most diffusive national advantages; for it is by imitation of excellence in so capital an article of the public strength, that, under the favour of Providence, the public stability and security are to be expected.

4. TO THE LAND TENANT.

Under this head what encouraging prospects would open, from the realizing of our plan! The lovers of agriculture and

and rural improvements might look forward with the most pleasing expectations ! How many thousands of useful members of the community, feeling themselves relieved from a burden always irksome in its nature, and frequently oppressive by its weight, would gather new vigour from their arduous and important pursuits ! As men who had been accustomed to labour for a foreign interest, and to sustain disadvantages commonly proportioned to their industry,---as men liable to be counteracted by heavy taxation on their best projects of advancement,---as men frequently harassed by those of their own order, whose exactions they could neither brook nor repel, and inspected and pressed by others whom they wished to regard with some degree of reverence, they had heretofore been galled and agitated between real hardship and constant apprehension ! Delivered at length from the standing cause of complaint, and encouraged by the certainty of labouring and improving chiefly for their own emolument, they will take a new character in society, and become a benefit to that society in proportion to the liberty of their new situation.

5. TO THE NATION AT LARGE.

Having shewn the disadvantages of the old and vexatious system ; the misapplication of Tithes from their original design, the present non-necessity of their existence ; the means by which they may be removed ; and the advantages which would consequently result to particular classes from that removal, I come now, and lastly, to sum up the whole in a few words.

The whole nation, thus renovated in an article of the first consequence to its prosperity, would have a new face of wisdom, cheerfulness, and content. Every citizen would have a new pledge, that, under the blessing of Providence, he is in that situation in which the fruits of the earth, " excellent and comely," would be cultivated and brought forth in the greatest abundance which the soil and the elements are adapted to supply. Ingenuity and useful industry would operate without restraint, where they could be most effectually exercised for the supply of human wants. The attachment of Englishmen, under such improved circumstances, might be expected to be more firmly fixed and rivetted to their native home ; instead of their wishing to migrate to distant regions in quest of more fruitful fields, and more happy habitations. Re-

ligion, the last great source of human felicity, would be more uniformly and socially cherished ; and that brotherly love, which is one of its most amiable features, would have a fairer prospect of a more rooted cultivation and growth !

Such are the distinct advantages which would evidently result from such measures as we have been considering ; and, I trust, the evidence of them is too clear, not to gain the assent of the *generality* of my readers : some will be found ready to controvert my reasoning, as a matter of course ; others will approve with reluctance, and will perhaps tell me that to turn the weakness of the human mind into strength, and to remove a crooked, interested, or bigotted policy, by dint of arguments, however rational, might in me be arrogance of expectation ! Yet will I reply with integrity,

The misery of the world, both moral and political, has ever arisen from the folly of continuing to prefer, from whatever motive, that which is known to be wrong, before that which is seen to be right !

There never was an overthrow of a government, or a dangerous commotion in any state, but what was engendered by habits of cultivating error, and giving *sanction* and *continuance* to some evil policy, instead of promptly avowing and embracing a sound one. This false and wicked policy, always fostered for the supposed interest of some unprincipled individuals, will ever lead to its own punishment, in the general result. But it is the infallible property of truth to stand invulnerable, and to shield those individuals and those governments who bravely embrace her whenever she appears, and repose under her banner !

There is an eternal distinction of right and wrong, good and evil, in the whole of human conduct, from the largest measures of the largest connexions, down to the smallest efforts of approbation or dissent, in the most obscure individual who acts in them. And those distinctions are never without their physical effects, in proportion to the quantity of truth or error, by which the actions and policy of men are swayed. Nothing, therefore, however small, is unimportant in the whole of things, or of any particular department of things, to which it naturally belongs. Human conduct is naturally liable to error ; but *truth* should be sought out in all circumstances, and in all times, and be *immediately* applied as the natural
and

and proper remedy. The neglect of this application engenders new and increasing evil and embarrassment, and every moment of delay augments the difficulty.

The contrary doctrine has been exemplified in the trimming and garbling conduct of all ages. And the consequences have followed, i. e. the *murmuring*, the *commotion*, and *misery* of society!

There cannot, in nature, be a more unworthy, dangerous, and impious doctrine held, than that *truth*, *moral justice*, and the *fitness of things*, are less worthy, or less safe to be *immediately* trusted to, than *impropriety*, *injustice*, and *falsehood*. It is a doctrine destructive, on its first principles, of all order and happiness in human society; and so far as the transgression of men can effect it, *destructive of the sovereignty of God himself*.

There cannot be the possibility of a period in which an *immediate*, *ardent*, and *reverential* preference should not be given to the former foundations of duty, and in which the latter principles should not be *abandoned*, as the source of deformity, tending to general anarchy!

In the multiform complexions of human character, there are, and ever will be, some men, perhaps the greater part, whose minds may not be furnished with sufficient energy for the noble promptitude of active public virtue! This would be no evil to society were it practicable to prevail on such men, to be diffident in proportion to their inability for public service. Whenever a man feels a subject too extensive and complex for him to comprehend, and clearly to develop, to his own satisfaction, he should be admonished not to be arrogant on such a subject, but leave the discussion of it to clearer minds, or minds more fitted to that particular topic. He should consider, that by seeming to give an opinion, or by blaming those who reason with ardour, for the public weal, he may possibly be contributing to *embarrassment* and the *extension of evil*, which, but for him, and such as him, might be got rid of, by the unobstructed powers of reason, prevalent of other men, of whose hearts, as well as whose heads, he has cause to entertain a favourable idea.

I am no friend to *implicit confidence* on the one hand, or *supineness*, with regard to the cultivation of a man's own faculties, on the other. But we may say with safety, that whenever there is a *consciousness* of a want of comprehension, on an important topic, it becomes a man's duty to be silent, till rational conviction is at-

tendant on his mind. Were this simple rule more generally observed, prejudices of an idle and slavish nature would be gradually removed, and we should have less difficulty in getting rid of numerous political and social evils,—evils which frequently become such, or are more sensibly felt, by mere change of times and circumstances around us.

This general remark will apply to the subject in view. It is a subject confessedly requiring the exertion of men of talents and comprehensive minds; but if once the *uncomprehending*, the *unthinking*, and those who are *prejudiced by custom*, would cease to obstruct, by timorous opinion and groundless apprehension, we should get peaceably forward in a work of reform, which would reflect honour on the wisdom, patriotism, and rational religion of this country.

Nothing can be more certain, than that the longer a national evil is suffered to remain, uncorrected by the authority of reason and justice, the more sure is its progress towards a terrible remedy, in the convulsion of government! The genuine friends of order, peace, and happiness, have this alarming truth ever before their eyes; they feel it painfully engraven on their minds, and from the solemnity or their conviction, they speak, and struggle, in the hope of averting an impending calamity! The generous union of magnanimous men is *now* wanting, in the great business before us. The delay of it is big with incalculable danger!

Bath, Sept. 1, 1796. A LAYMAN.

For the Monthly Magazine.

ACCOUNT OF THE LATE
VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD,

By the French Commander,
ENTRECASTEAUX,
Made for the Purpose of DISCOVERY, and
also in search of LA PEYROUSE.
From the French of the Journal of an Officer
who served on board one of the ships.

ON September 28th, 1791, in the two sloops, *la Recherche* and *l'Esperance*, of sixteen guns, and 110 men each, we weighed from the harbour of Brest, completely equipped for a voyage of circumnavigating the globe. The government had previously sent on board a number of gentlemen, versed in astronomy, natural history, botany, painting, &c. and had provided an apparatus of astronomical instruments, marine time-pieces; in fine, every article that appeared likely to render the expedition subservient to the purposes of science. The conduct of the expedition

pedition was assigned to Captain ENTRE-CASTEAUX.

The leading object of the voyage was to endeavour to procure intelligence relative to Captain LA PEYROUSE, who had long been missing in the South Seas, and to make a complete tour of *New Holland*; an island, by far the largest in the world; comprehending an immense circuit of at least 3000 (French) leagues. The accomplishment of this last point was essential to the history of geography, and what had not been effected by either COOK, or LA PEYROUSE.

The first port we made was *Santa Cruz* in *Teneriffe*; we arrived there on the 17th of October, and having taken in wines and provisions, we proceeded on our route to the *Cape of Good Hope*: we arrived there; and while we continued there, the expedition sustained a considerable misfortune in the death of the astronomer BERTRAND.

Feb. 16th, 1792. We left the Cape, and bore away for the island of *New Guinea*, some parts of which we explored: we reached the islands *Arfacides* on July the 9th, and *New Ireland* the 17th ditto. We afterwards made for *Amboyna*, one of the *Molucca* islands, where we arrived September 6th.

Oct. 11th. We left *Amboyna*, and sailed immediately for the west part of *New Holland*, along which we intended to coast (as being the least known), and then to proceed along the southern shore; we were always driven back, however, by east and south-east winds, and this part of our enterprize was consequently frustrated.

Dec. 3d, 1792. We arrived at that cape which is at the south-west extremity of *New Holland*, and sailed along the southern shore till Jan. 3d, having by this means traced and ascertained about two-thirds of the whole extent of the southern coast.

In consequence of the want of water, and the prevalence of high south-easterly winds, we bore away for the *Cape de Diexnes*; the south-east extremity of this extensive island. In this part of the southern coast we observed a number of bold and noble harbours. After a delay here of three weeks, we shaped our course for *New Zealand*, and afterwards for the *Friendly Islands*.

On the 11th of March, we passed very near the *North Cape of New Zealand*, and making for the shore, several canoes came along-side of us. We procured a number of ornaments from the savages, and parting from them reluctantly, continued our route.

On the 16th, we discovered two little islands, at a little distance from each other. The most eastern one lies in $30^{\circ}. 17$, south latitude, and in $179^{\circ}. 41$, east longitude.

On the 17th, we discovered an island about five leagues in circumference, conspicuous by its elevated situation. It lies in $29^{\circ}. 3$, south latitude, and in $179^{\circ}. 54$, east longitude.

On the 2d of March, we saw *Eboua*, the most south westerly of the *Friendly Islands*. The next day we anchored at *Tongataboo*, the largest of the *Friendly Islands*. A multitude of canoes crowded about us, and the beach was soon covered with the natives, who welcomed our arrival by every possible expression of joy. This satisfaction was sometimes interrupted by the imprudence of some of our people, and sometimes by the excessive curiosity of the islanders, to see and possess every thing that was European. After a tedious voyage, which had often forced us to put into uninhabited places, how grateful was the satisfaction we experienced to find ourselves so hospitably entertained by a people among whom civilization is already considerably advanced!

Among these islanders, we frequently meet with men six feet high, their limbs shaped in the most comely proportion. The fertility of the soil, which exempted them from the necessity of extreme labour, may conduce not a little to the unusual perfection of their forms. Their features have a strong resemblance to those of Europeans. A burning sky has impressed a slight discolour on their skins. Those, among the women, who are but little exposed to the rays of the sun, are sufficiently fair. Some of them are distinguished by a beautiful carnation, which gives a vivacity to their whole figure. A thousand nameless graces are visible in their gestures, when engaged in the slightest employments. In the dance, their movements are enchanting.

The language of this people bears an analogy with the gentleness of their manners. It is well adapted to music, for which they have a peculiar taste. Their concerts, wherein every one performs his part, demonstrate the just ideas which they entertain of harmony. The women, as well as the men, have their shoulders and breasts naked. A cotton cloth, or rather a piece of stuff, manufactured with the bark of mulberry tree into paper, serves them for apparel. It forms a beautiful drapery, reaching from a little above the waist down to the feet.

The art of pottery has made some progress among them. We saw several vases

vases of potter's earth, tolerably well baked, in which they preserved their water: these vases are manufactured in an island named *Seidgy*, lying, according to the best accounts we could gather, about 100 leagues to the north of the place where we were at anchor.

These islands produce a species of nutmegs, which differs very little in form from those of the Moluccas. It is not, however, aromatic, and is almost twice as large. We collected in the island a number of objects which may prove useful for the study of natural history.

We also procured the bread-fruit tree, for the purpose of transporting it into our West-India Islands; we were obliged to leave it, however, at *Sourabaya*, in the island of *Java*. At our departure from thence we took a receipt, from *LAHAY*, the Dutch gardener there, for eleven young plants of this invaluable tree, and as many roots and stocks, all in prime condition, which we had brought away from the Friendly Islands, after having had them nearly eleven months in our possession. The roots and plants together amount to twenty-two, all in high preservation; and as the tree grows very rapidly, this quantity will suffice to replenish the Islands with them in six or eight years time. They were at *Jarnarang*, in the island of *Java*, on the 20th of March, 1795. We must not confound this excellent species of bread-fruit tree with the wild species of it found in the Moluccas, and observed for a long time past in the Isle of France. In this second sort the grains do not miscarry; while in the good fruit tree they are replaced by a food truly delicious, when baked under ashes or in the oven. In other respects it is a most wholesome viand, affording us a pleasant repast during the whole time of our continuance on this island, and for which we willingly relinquished our ship's stock of baker's bread. The Molucca sort produces thirty or forty small fruits; while every tree of the Friendly Islands produces three or four hundred, extremely large, of an oval form, the greatest diameter being from nine to ten inches, and the smallest from seven to eight. A tree would be oppressed with such an enormous load, if the fruit were to ripen all at once: but the sagacious nature has so ordered it, that the fruits succeed each other, during eight months of the year, thus providing the nations with a food equally salubrious and plentiful. Every tree occupies a circular space of about thirty feet dia-

meter. A single acre occupied by this vegetable would supply the wants of a number of families. Nothing in nature exhibits a similar fecundity. As it produces no seeds, it has a wonderful faculty of throwing out suckers: and its roots frequently force their way up to the surface of the earth, and there give birth to fresh plants.

It thrives exceedingly in a tropical climate, in a soil somewhat elevated above the level of the sea; and suits very well with a marly soil in which a mixture of argillaceous clay preponderates.

We quitted the Friendly Islands on the 10th of April, 1793.

The next day we observed a small island named *Tortoise*.

April 15th, we saw *Errouan*, the most eastern of the islands of the Archipelago of the Holy Ghost, and afterwards that of *Anatom*. The eruptions of the volcano of *Tana* presented in the night a spectacle truly sublime.

April 27th, steering for *New Caledonia*, in a night darker than usual, we ran among some islands surrounded with breakers, not noticed till then by navigators. We were only apprized of our danger by an uncommon circumstance, the flight of a flock of sea fowl over our heads about three o'clock in the morning. This indication of the proximity of land induced the officer upon watch to slacken sail, and lie to, at a critical juncture, when an hour's more sailing must have dashed us to pieces against the rocks. These new-discovered islands lie about thirty leagues N. E. of *New Caledonia*, where we anchored April 18th.

After the description that *COOK* and *FORSTER* have given of the inhabitants of *New Zealand*, we expected to find realized the advantageous portrait given of them by those celebrated voyagers. We had reason, however, partly to suspend our belief of those accounts, when we afterwards observed a number of human bones, broiled, which the savages were devouring, eagerly fastening on the smallest tendinous parts which adhere to them. This fact at least suffices to prove, that the New Zealanders are cannibals. They often attacked our boat; but the good countenance we exhibited prevented their assailing or massacring any of our company. Notwithstanding these hostilities, the ship was every day visited by numerous bodies of the islanders. The soil being everywhere barren, we perceived but few vestiges of any taste for agriculture; still, however,

ever, we observed in some gardens, the Colocasia, the Caribbee cabbage, the banana tree, and the sugar-cane. The cocoa tree bears but very diminutive fruit, the water of which is far from being pleasant.

The barbarous customs of the natives did not prevent our reiterated excursions into the interior parts of the country. On these occasions we kept together to the number of twenty, always well armed. As evening came on, we commonly took our station on some elevated post in the mountains, where we passed the night in a situation which protected us from hostile assaults. To guard against surprize, we kept watch by turns.

Observations made for twenty days together in this extensive region, of which FORSTER had but a glimpse (being sick all the eight days of his being off the island), furnished us with a variety of novel materials, especially in the vegetable kingdom.

On the 6th of May, we lost Citizen HUON, Captain of the *Esperance*. He had been for some time before afflicted with an incurable marasmus. We buried him in *Observation* Island.

May 9th, we weighed anchor, and sailed before the wind for the north. In our course, we observed the eastern part of the reefs and islands, the western side of which we saw the year before.

May 21st, we were close on the island of *Saint Croix*, and sent in two boats to look out for an anchoring place. While the sailors were employed in sounding, one of the natives, at the distance of upwards of eighty paces, lanced an arrow, which slightly wounded the forehead of one of them. A volley of fire-arms, however, soon dispersed the groupe of canoes which had surrounded the boats, and from which the lance proceeded. Although the wound was apparently so inconsiderable, it was attended with a *tetanus*, which proved mortal to the unfortunate sailor after only eight days. The arrow did not appear to us to have been poisoned, as it is well known that beasts pierced with the same weapons do not experience any fatal symptoms. In India, it is no uncommon thing to see the slightest puncture followed by a spasm, which is a certain forerunner of death.

After this, we proceeded to visit the *Arfacides* Islands; and that part of *Louisiade* which BOUGAINVILLE did not explore, the northern part of which is very difficult of access. We anchored after this near some very lofty mountains on the

south-east coast of *New Guinea*. After having passed through *Dampier's* Streights, we discovered the northern side of *New Britain* *.

July 16th and 17th, we sailed in view of the *Anchoret* Islands of BOUGAINVILLE.

July 20th, we lost ENTRECASTEAUX, our Captain. He died of convulsions, every fit of which was succeeded by a speechless stupor.

After having taken some notice of *Traitor's* Islands, and part of the elevated lands of *New Guinea*, we anchored at *Waigiore*.

Aug. 16th, 1793, in $129^{\circ} 14'$ of east longitude, and so near the equator, that we were only half a minute to the south. Here the inhabitants brought us very large sea-turtles, the soup of which we experienced to be a salutary remedy for the scurvy, which was now prevalent among us.

In this island we procured a number of interesting objects, and quitted it August 29th, and sailed for *Bourvo*, where we anchored September 3d, 1793. In this mountainous isle, where the productions of nature are extremely varied, we had a favourable opportunity of continuing our botanical researches, &c.

We passed through *Button's* Streights, from September 23d to October 9th, frequently coming to anchor and going ashore for the sake of enlarging our collections. Here several of our men died of a contagious bilious dysentery, contracted in the low marshy grounds of this country.

Oct. 28, 1793, we cast anchor in the road of *Sourabaya*, in the Isle of *Java*. Here divisions broke out among the crews, in consequence of gaining intelligence of the further progress of the French Revolution. D'AURIBEAU infamously hoisted the white flag, Feb. 19th, 1794, and shamefully surrendered the two vessels to the Dutch. He also seized all the journals, charts, and memoirs, which were connected with the voyage, and in the most dastardly manner arrested all those of the ships' companies that were obnoxious to his own political sentiments. One

* The whole extent of this navigation is extremely dangerous; for a length of 1200 leagues (French) a line of rocks or breakers, nearly level with the water, runs along the bottom of the sea. In this route, it is probable that the unfortunate *La Peyrouse* perished, unless, as was supposed at the time, his vessel foundered in the dreadful tempest of Dec. 31, 1788.

journal, however, was fortunately saved by having been stowed in a box of tea.

In this hazardous, yet important voyage, of 215 persons, 36 lost their lives; the astronomer PEARSON died at *Java*; and VENTENAT at the *Ile of France*. RICHE, the naturalist, remains at *Java*, as well as BILLADIÈRE. LAHAY, the botanist, is also there; having under his care the bread fruit trees, brought from the *Friendly Islands*. PIRON, the painter, tarried with the governor of *Jourabaga*. DESCHAMP, the naturalist, remains with D'AURIBEAU.

1609 CORAM REG. JAC.

THE RELACION OF A HEARING IN PRESENCE OF Y^E KING AND Y^E JUDGES, TOUCHING WALES AND Y^E 4 COUNTIES.

ALSOE S^R ROBERT CECIL'S SPEECH, 23 EL. ANNO 1581, CONCERNING Y^E JURISDICTION OF Y^E COUNCELL OF WALES AND Y^E MARCHES.

The following very curious Manuscript was discovered, with others of a similar nature, among the papers of GLYNN, once Recorder of London, and are communicated to this Work by an intelligent Correspondent at Worcester.

We give it as a valuable Relation of an important Fact. It is strongly indicative of the Character and Views of *King James*, and of the firmness of his Judges.—The former, educated under the influence of arbitrary power, reluctantly submitted to the dominion of the law.—And the latter, sensible of the necessity of bounding the prerogative, nobly strove to preserve the limits which the wisdom of their Ancestors had prescribed.

JAMES often endeavoured to render himself superior to the restraints which the Constitution of England had set on the Regal Power; and he had repeated struggles with the Courts of Common Law when aiming at the Extension of the Prerogative. But with respect to the Royal Proclamations, and in several cases of Prohibition, the Judges were victorious, and preserved the authority of the Laws unshaken. A relation of those Facts is given us by Sir Edward Coke, in the 12th volume of his Reports, (63. 74. &c.)—And the same Writer informs us, *though very briefly*, in another work (4. Inst: 212,) that in the present instance they were victorious also—And that in consequence of their Determination, “*his Majesty was graciously pleased that the Lord President's Commission should be reformed; whereupon the Lord Zouch gave over his place.—And yet the Commission was not after reformed in all points as it ought to have been.*”

The Prince of Wales who is mentioned in this Relation, was Henry, the King's eldest son, and is represented as an amiable person.—He died a few years afterwards, and it was suspected, by poison.

The Archbishop was Bancroft, a prelate accused in other instances of urging the Extension of the Prerogative, of encouraging the King when insisting on the Divine Right and the absolute Authority of the Regal Sway.

“My Baron Altham,” on the contrary, evinced himself on other occasions as the firm Defender of the Laws of his Country.

Sir Robert Cecil was the son of the celebrated Burleigh.—He was in great favour with James, and accused of favouring the Prerogative.

James was correct in affirming that his Ancestors, Kings of England, had frequently sat in the Court of King's Bench; but those days had fled.—It had long been a received maxim that all judicial Authority was delegated to the Judges.—And, therefore, though James is alleged to have sat himself in that Court, he was not suffered to pronounce Judgment.

KINGE JAMES

CORAM DNO REGE TERTIO DIE NOVEMBRIS (1608) PRO MARRCHIJS WALLIE.

ALL the Judges being assembled save my Baron Altham.

The matter for the marches was moved by the Lord Tresuror that the difference

might be drawne into a question, whereunto all the Lords assented and did agree That the Lord President should propound the Question.

Whereunto his Lordship answered that for his part he made noe question, for he in his judgement and understanding was fatished. Yet if he should make the question,

tion, the same (as he conceived) would be whether the King appointing him president and establishing a Councell there, to whome he had committed jurisdiction within the fower Shires by his instructions signed by his owne Royall hand, allowed by the Lords of his privy Councell & passed & approved by the then two Chiefe Justices of the King's Bench and Comon Pleas, had don that which he might lawfully doe.

Then it was moved by some of the Lords that the Question might be first upon the lawe, before they medled with the King's prerogative.

Whereunto my Lord president answered that he must make the case as well out of the king's prerogative, as out of the lawe, wherein he was not well scene, but there was the King's Councell learned, M^r Attorney & M^r Solicitor, who by speciall directions from the kinge, were prepared and appoynted to mainteyne his prerogative therein.

Whereupon the King's Councell presented themselves M^r Attorney spake notheing, but S^r Francis Bacon bouldly spake saying that it was not (as he conceived) fitt that the Case or Question should be drawne disjoyned (that is) either to be made foorth of the statute of 34th of Hen. the 8th only or out of the King's prerogative, but out of both.

That is, whether the kinge may by his owne prerogative and the same statute give power to the Lord President & Councell to exercise jurisdiction within the 4 shires, and that this should be the question, as well the Lords of the Councell, as the Lord President assented.

The question being written and read to the Judges, they made noe answer.

Whereupon the Lord Chancellor demanded whether they did agree that to be the question or noe.

Then the Lord Chiefe Justice of England humbly craved pardon disclaymeing utterly from yelding to any question or giving their judgement in the same insoemuch as (though they were unworthy of their places) yet his Highness had constituted them Judges, wherein they were not to deliver their opinions, but as the causes and cases fell out before them judicially, betweene party and party, alledging further, that they before that tyme, knew of noe question & hoped they should not be called to answer any question. But if the Lord President & inhabitants of those shires had any question, when it came judicially before them, they would heare what their Councell on

both sides would saye and proceed in justice, as by oath they are bound; and therefore prayed that they might not be urged or drawn from the course of judges in that case, to make a president thereof to their successors that should come after them.

Which answered the Lords of the Councell allowed not; And the Lord Chancellor answered, that the matter proposed was to be consulted on by the Kinge & his Councell, as a matter of state, and that the King had his Privy Councell, consisting of the Lords then present, and that the Judges were alsoe of his Councell, and to give their counsell when they are called thereunto, & sworne to doe that as well as to the administration of justice. Whereunto noe reply was made.

And thereupon the Lord Chamberlayne went for the Kinge, who presently came to the counsell table, and brought the younge Prince with him, who was seated upon a stoole by, but not at the table.

Then was the question read, & all the Judges were againe, by the King, demanded what they thought thereof.

Whereunto the Lord Chiefe Justice again upon his knees to his Majestie, craved pardon to yeld to drawe it to any Question for the Cause before showed to the Lords.

The KING then sayed that the President and Councell of the principality and marches of Wales (having his Commission and Instructions) are hindered in their proceedings by prohibitions; which (said he) are sought for upon these grounds that some of you (speaking to the Judges) have sayed that they of the fower shires ought not to be subiect to any Jurisdiction but Westminster Hall, and that he would saye notheing to them in generall before he entred into his particular Question; for his errand thither was caused by many and continuall complaints of prohibitions, whereby the Jurisdiction of the most of his Courts were called in question; that is, said he, the Councell in the Marches of Wales, the Councell in the North, the Admiralty, the Court of Requests, and all his Ecclesiasticall Courts.

Soe that to settle those Courts belonged to him, as Kinge and Monarch, by the fundamentall Lawes of this Realme, and the Realmes of Christian Kingdomes and Empires.

First. Although at the first Kinges reigned tumultuarly, yet after the Councell Jethro gave to Moses, which hath been

been approved by all that professe Christianity, they have chosen out men of courage, feareing God, loveing truth, and hateing bribes, and sett them over thousands, over hundreds, over fifties, and over tens, to administer justice in all ordinary and comon causes, betweene party and party, reserving to their owne judicature, all matters of great moment and difficulty. And this reservacion here in England you call the King's prerogative, and your own bookes doe prove the forme of government was used here in England.

The Kings themselves used to ride from country to country to administer justice, and to that end the Chancellor & Judges of the land attended the King & either with or neere him decided causes which might easily be performed here in England before the heptarchie was united, and in Scotland alsoe till Scotts & Picts were made one nation.

But when kingdomes grewe great Princes became proude & waxed idle, and in their pride & lasinesse (which greatnes had begotten) they thought it better to lay that burthen from themselves upon others, and soe settled the Courts at Westminster as now they are, in which I may sitt my selfe and give judgements (whatsoever hath been sayed to the contrary by one in parliament), for judgements are given in my name, & especially in the Chancery, all the Records to this day goe (*Rege presente*) and soe likewise in our bench.

In the begining also the parliament sate all together in one house, & all causes were handled in the King's owne presence, but afterwards when the Kings of this land grewe great & lazie, and the number of the Burgesses increaseng, for more conveniencye of consultation, the Comons were sent to an other house where the King is not present, because he cannot divide his person. But nothing can be concluded without him. And although (when the houses were all one) all was don and spoken in the King's presence & hearing, yet nowe the King may not knowe what is don in the lower house.

Constantine the Greate administred justice in ordinarie causes by judges delegate, yet he reserved causes of greatest moment to himselfe, and when there grewe controversie betweene his Bishops or Judges, he was Judge himselfe.

All Judges are but the King's shadowe and ministers, & all your breves are sent forth in my name, and not in the Judges.

And then the Kinge sayed that the judgements of all the Courts are his, & you (speakeing to the Judges) are but my deputies, for I may sitt in the Chancery, or in our bench, are not the proces *Teste meipso*, & is not our bench *Locus Regis*, so that I may sitt and judge there if I list, you have nothing of your selves but what you have from me.

And though I will ever defend the lawes of my realme, and will not bringe innovacions, yet for matter of government continued soe long in soe many Kings and Queenes days, shall not I be as able to mainteyne my prerogative as my predecessors have don, yes verely, & will do, in soe much as I am answerable to God for your doings & you to me, it must needs be that your judgements are myne, and what soever any in this land may doe by authority from me, except it be in administracion of the sacraments or such like, I may doe it my selfe. And albeyt my predecessors have not don it these many yeares, yet I pray you what sayeth your lawe, *Nullum tempus occurrit Regi*, and what is all your lawe, but *Voluntas Regis*, and then the lawe sayeth, *Eius est interpretare cuius est condere*.

I speake not this for my selfe soe much but alsoe for my sonne here, who is Prince of Wales, and when I thinke fitt shal be sent thither. And (turneing to the Prince) sayed, This concerneth you, sir, and I hope you will loose nothinge that is yours, and if you will, your father will not dureing his life.

Is it fitt, sayed the King, that in those countries bordering about the Prince's houses, he, nor his Councell, should have further jurisdiction than an ordinary Justice of Peace, and that he should have noe jurisdiction in his owne house and ouer his heigh court at his gates, shall he have lesse than the meanest president that ever was. The people of these countries have obeyed all the tyme of 6 or 7 Kings, my predecessors, and why should not they obey now as well? I see euery subject stands upon his right, and euery Judge for his owne jurisdiction: And may not I aswel stand for my right & jurisdiction to leave it to my successor as I found it, your selves (speaking to the judges) in a case the last day which concerned the Lord of Cumberland, sayed that 80 yeares usage was a good matter, but in this case 180 awayleth nothings.

Then kneeled downe the Lord Coke, who sayed that whether the fower shires were

within the jurisdiction of the Councell was *questio facti & non Juris*, and ought to be tried by the country.

To whom the King's majestie angerly replied, did not I tell you before that you haue notheing but foorth of the power I give you, who then shall direct my tryal? I doe knowe your meaneing, but I will not be soe tryed; doe not I see that through the sloughnesse of kings & Princes, whoe because they would not sitt in parliament themselves have admitted divided bodyes as the vpper house & the lower, whereas if Kings & Princes sate themselves in parliament as they might doe, & call before them the members of the same together as assistants to the Kinge, he should be the better respected.

Have I euer for any subject of my land, in any case which I affected as in the late case of the union; did I euer write, send, or solicit any of you, but left you to your selves, and what hath come of this sufferance?

None doe oppose themselves against the jurisdiction of the Councell in the marches, but certaine light headed fellows calling them by the Scottish name Mounteinge fellows, in English Swaggeringefellowes, such as Herbert Crofts, and others, which he named to the number of three or fower, who, because they would oppresse the meaner people, and bear the whole sway of their countrey, without controllement, doe oppose themselves against government & the state of a Kinge, to whome they knowe not what apperteyneth.

I knowe there might be a wiser Kinge and more verteous, and yet I knowe I am noe foole, I came not in as an vsurper, but as a rightful Kinge, descended directly out of the loynes of the Kings of this land, and what prerogative to me therein apperteyneth, I will hold & maynteyne to the vttermost.

The case now in question is not the presidents of the marches of Wales only, but through your hardynesse to animate men to disobedience, see you not what comes of it, that the people of the fower shires will not be obedient to the last instructions for matters of xl. & vnder.

Is it not the presidents of Yorke his case heere present, naye is it not also the Churches case, here my Lord of Canterbury present, none of these can proceed in any Courte of Justice by reason of your prohibitions graunted, wch I desire you to spare.

The Lords Chiefe Justices & Chiefe Baron with this speech of the Kings

swelled so with anger, that teares fell from them.

The Kinge further said, I have now unfolded unto you the true lawe of free Monarchies & what I may doe. And you shall shortly vnderstand what I meane to doe. I will hear the reasons that shal be made of each side, & will hould you to the poynt, and when I doe perceave the force of any argument or reason I will truly tell you what I thinke thereof (as I shall give accompt to God) not proposing to bring in any noviltie for the enlarging of my owne prerogative nor restraining of prohibitions but in cases where they have growne of late and have not heretofore been granted.

Tell me said the Kinge to the Judges what are the reasons that move this? for I protest but that I vnderstand some of you have resolved against that jurisdiction for those shires I would leave it to yourselves to judge. But nowe *Res non est integra*. Say that you have not so affirmed & I have done.

The judges answered the case is of great waight and moment the question not knowne to them before nor agreed on when they came into that place, therefore they desired time to consider thereof.

The Kinge answered, the question is not new, it hath beene twice debated in my owne presence and oftener before the Lords, and the instructions wch are now resisted were made by my Councell & the Lord Chiefe Justice of the Comon Pleas therefore you neede not to desire tyme to consider thereof.

Then said the Lord Coke, they had not debated the cause and conferred the reasons to agree what should be said and he was affrayde that if they should answer single it would fall out as was said of the old Brittans *Dum singuli pugnant universi vincuntur*.

The Kinge said I should have said soe to you while every Court strives for its owne jurisdiction the generall jurisdiction goeth to wracke.

The Lord Coke sayed this is a matter of fact & *ad questionem facti non respondent jurisperiti*.

Never tell me that said the Kinge, It is a question of fact whether this or that towne in Gloucestershire be in the marches of Wales or noe, but whether the fower shires be comprehended in the meaning of the statute vnder the words of marches of Wales is not *questio facti*.

Well, queth the Kinge, I will keepe my determinacion to my seife till the end, & sith you desire tyme I will leave you
once

once more to consider with yourselves after some fitting course, only I thought good thus much to give you taste of my intencion that you may know I meane to mayntayne my prerogative.

The Arch Bishop of Canterbury said, your Majestie hath truly declared the ground worke of all free monarchies & lawes of kingdomes, and that wch you have sayed is agreeable to the word of God, your giving jurisdiction to others is (as you may tearme it) not derogative to your selfe, but with reservation of supream jurisdiction to you. And whereas al jurisdiction consisteth in *questione facti*, or in *questione juris*, if this answer be allowed, where shall the supream jurisdiction be, if it be *questio facti* it is taken from you & given to the Jury, if it be *questio juris*, then it belongeth only to the judges.

With this the Kinge, Councell, and all arose and departed.

SIR ROBERT CECILL *his Speech concerning the Jurisdiction of the Councell in the lower Shires or Marches of Wales.*

23th Regine Eliz. 1581.

ALTHOUGH I am not of their mynde who conceive noe change ought to be made of auncient lawes or longe used courses in government, because the comon people even naturally affecting change are notwithstanding with change of old customes ever discontented, yet doe I thinke that the proceedings of our auncettors are reverently to be esteemed and their wisdomes not to be prejudiced by our innovations unless necessitie doth inforce or publique commoditie occasion us thereunto.

What moved the Kings of this realme to erect a counsell in the principality & marches of Wales, and to commit to their government the Marcher Shires of Gloucester, Worcester, Hereford, Salop and Monmouth, I doe remember the wilde & unrulie behavior of the people in those parts is recorded in statutes made against them and their now civilitie and obedience is well knowne to her Majesty, and graciously conceived off.

Therefore if at first it was necessarie provided & since hath been politiquely maynteyned for the good ensuing thereby that the inhabitants of those marcher-shires should have many of their causes determined by the councell there, I thinke it very convenient to be considered by her Majestie how farr the continuance is be-hoofe full.

I will only be bould to say this much that when by many rayfed bankes, & de-

fenceis a maritive country is kept safe from the seas overflowing, because it is now safe and soe by reason of the banks & defences hath so longe remayned it were noe discretion to take away the causes of safetie least the seas fynding the flays removed the country then againe fynd the danger of inundacions.

It cannot blemish any people to be governed, because noe people live orderly without government, & where any government is proved good by the fruits that have ensued it is dangerous upon an opinion of better successe to exchange it.

Therefore where some have earnestly moved her Majestie to exempt from that counsell the Counties of Gloucester, Worcester, Hereford, Salop, & Monmoth alleadgeing that those shires shall thereby receive benefitt and her Majestie eased of that charge which through the maintenance of that Councell her Highness now susteyneith.

I conceive it very needfull carefully to regarde the many inconveniences which will follow by yelding thereunto, for I am perswaded that neyther shall her Majestie of her present charge be thereby any whit eased, nor the inhabitants of those Shires any way benefitted. And for prooffe thereof let it first be considered how her Majesties expences can be lessened by this course.

The charge her Majestie is putt vnto by the Councell in the marches is by alloweing out of her coffers 1000l. for the dyett of that Councell & wages for the officers of the householde 66l. 13s. 4d. for extraordinary expences & 200l. by the yeare for the pencion of her Chiefe Justice of Chester.

The allowance of her Councell learned, the fees of her Secretorie, Attorney, Solicitor, Chaplaine, purservants, rydeing charges, and all other expences are payed out of the fynes which be assessed there upon persons offending her Majesties laws.

If by taking the marcher shires from the Councell any parte of this her Majesties charge would be lessened, it must be eyther by dyminisheing the number of persons who serve or of the allowance which they receive.

Touching the Councillors officers & servants of that Court I will say only this that although these marcher shires be exempt & the 12 shires of Wales left only to this government yet her Majestie cannot be served with fewer persons then now she is & soe shall not her highnes's charges be eased by the number.

The

The allowances which are made to her Counsell learned, are so small, that in policie it were more fitt to be augmented then diminished, the smallness of their stipend not yielding now competent mayntenance to them of that worthines who should there serve her Majestie, & for that service foregoe all practize of the lawe elsewhere, which want of reward is dangerous for discouraging men of sufficiency, & for corruption of such who feeble the smarte of poverty.

Therefore if by the exempting these marcher shires, neyther the number of Counsellors nor Officers wilbe shortned nor the allowance now made any whit lessened, how much will the same occasion her Majesties benefitt shall wee thinke that the giving of this desired liberty will cause an increase of loyalty in the subjects of those parts? will their dispositions when they return unto that state that they were in before the erecting of that Counsell be other then it had been? Was there before good cause to put those shires under the government of that Councell, and is there noe cause to continue it?

But you will say it is a burthen to those shires, why then should Wales endure it, are they not subjects to one Sovereigne, & therefore why should not all be partakers of the like goodness?

For if the government of the Councell be greivous to the marches, it cannot be comodious to Wales.

Therefore, in my opinion, wch I submit to better judgment, it is no policie that the Welshmen should fynde themselves more awed and bridled, or lesse tendered then other subjects, for as they are a people apt to acknowledge any kyndness, soe are they by nature impatyent to endure any thing wch they shall conceave to be done for distrusting them, or for contempt of them.

And soe, to speak truly, if it be needful to continue a Counsell in Wales, it is not fit to take it from the Marches, for in these dayes though the offences of the Marcher men are neither fewer in number, nor in qualitie more tolerable, then those done in Wales, and that in tymes past the Marcher men have sooner yielded to government, did not proceed that they were in disposition better then the Welshmen; but because the plainnesse of their country yielded better and easier means to suppress them.

Yet if it shalbe yielded that a Marcher man ought to better esteemed & more favoured, notwithstanding the cause

intended is most perillous, and greater reason to retayne them as they are that all differences of language, customes, & dispocicions may be reconciled by the communion of laws and government as the only sinewes by which these diverse members may be united into the same body.

For this reason (as I thinke) the Kings of this Realme named that Counsell the Counsell in the Marches, and appoynted houses for their residence only in the Marches.

Now if these Shires shall be exempted, where shall the Councell contynue, Ludlow castle is in Shropshire, Ticknell house in Worcestershire; noe house of her Majestie in all Wales, to my knowledge, fitt for this purpose, soe that not only the discontentment of the Welshmen shall be hazarded, which in this tyme is not convenient, the principality of Wales shortened in dominion, by taking from it all those Marcher Shires, and new houses must be builded, or old houses (to her Majesties great charge, for the Councells aboade) repayred, or else these Shires must continue as they now are.

But lett all these inconveniencies be forgotten. Let not the mychiefes be remembered which will ensue, the Welshmen's repayers into these Marcher Shires, to avoyd punishment.

Let Marcher Shires be yelded free from being receptacles of popish & disloyal subjects, who would to God were not there too much harbored.

Let it be noe prejudice to her Majestie to have those Shires exempted from that jurisdiction, which the wisdom of parliament have thought meete to be established in those parts more absolute then elsewhere in this land.

Let there be noe reason to deny what is sought, if it may be for the ease of those Shires only if this motion prove not alone prejudiciall to the publique state but hurtfull to these private Shires, then let it be considered what doth occasion this suite.

First, if it be not for the good of the countrey, then must it of necessitie bee because their suites (for suites they still will have) may be ended elsewhere with lesse charges, & in shorter tyme.

The court of the Counsell in the Marches ordinarily houldeth plea but of such causes which are received into the Courts of Chancery, Star-chamber or Requests, with some other pleas & causes limited by the instructions, how longe suites depend in these courts before they are ended

ed lett any man who hath suites there be judge, I will not impeach any court in reputation, I yeld to them all due honour, but for the truth of this matter, I must needs saye, that in one yeare, every matter if eyther the playntiff or defendant will, shall receive end in the Marches, which in none of the other courts, in lesse then two yeares ordinarily can be determined.

If this longe contynuanee doth proceed from the matter of suites (for it should be a wronge to thinke it occasioned for any other end,) then when the causes arising in the marches shall come allsoe there to be adjudged in what tyme (thinke you) will the same be decided.

Toucheing the difference of chardge susteyned by suites in the marches & in these courts, the difference of fees will manifest the truth every fee almost being doubled & many trebled, & some more then fower tymes soe much in the Starchamber as they are att the Counsell.

Soe that the dispatch of suites in these Courts being not soe speedy nor the chardge soe easy, it must needs followe that it cannot be for the good of the country to have all their suites removed from the marches.

What then hath occasioned this mocion seeing it playnely appeareth to be neither benefitall to the Soueraigne nor Subiect,

truly not any other cause then the greedy covetousenes of some persons in those Courts above, who desire to gett all And presumptuous ambition of some Gent. in those Marcher Shires where they seeke to comaunde all, the Court of the Marches being hinderfom to the one sorte of these in profit and a bridle to the other sorte for oppressing their poore neighbours having remedy there against their tyranny, both sorts therefore seeke to shorten the Courts jurisdiction.

But I hope her Majestie will give noe passage to these bad purposes & soe overthrowe a Court very behoofefull to her owne safety & needfull for the countreyes quiett, it being greatly to be feared least the taking away of that Court will embolden those under that Goverment to returne to their former wildnes, and soe put her Majestie to the like trouble & chardge, which many Kings of this land have often susteyned.

If there be faults in that Court (as what Court is free) lett the fault be reformed and not the Court suppressed.

It is cruell & dangerous surgery to use noe cure but even to cutt from the bodye the parte ill affected their practize is more to be comended who purge where is too much and cutt none off where is too little.

M E M O I R S
OF THE LATE
EMPERESS OF RUSSIA,
WITH

ORIGINAL ANECDOTES OF THE COURT OF PETERSBURGH.

RUSSIA, hardly known to the rest of Europe till the close of the last century*, has made so considerable a figure in the annals of history since that period, that a succinct detail of its progressive advancement to its present state of aggrandisement and prosperity would doubtless be no less useful than agreeable to the reader; but the relation of so many particulars as have concurred to that end, and the necessary display of the causes and consequences of each, would, with every possible endeavour at brevity, lead us to greater lengths than the limits of such a

publication as the present can allow.—The travellers, however, who have of late years presented the public with the observations they were able to make, and the information they obtained, on their journeys to that country, furnish sufficient accounts of the times immediately preceding the late reign, for excusing us from any farther preliminaries here.

On the tragical event that terminated the life of Peter the third, in 1762, his widow, Catharine the Second, began her reign.—She had been married to that unfortunate prince in 1745, while Grand Duke of Russia; being at that time in her seventeenth year. The only issue of this union were Paul Petrovitch, the present Emperor, born in 1754, and Anne, of whom the Grand Duchess was delivered in 1757, and who died in 1761. For sixteen

* Even till about the middle of the present century the proper name of the country seems to have been unknown.—It was called Muscovy; as if a Tartar, speaking of England, should call it Londony.

teen years they lived together in the enjoyment of as much conjugal felicity as usually falls to the lot of persons of that elevated rank; at least no flagrant irregularities, nor any conspicuous disagreements, appeared before the public eye. Peter, an easy good-natured prince, being excluded from all interference in public affairs, during the reign of his aunt Elizabeth Petrovna, had the palace of Oranienbaum assigned him for his residence, where, the culture of his mind having been totally neglected, he passed his days in military exercises at the head of his troops, and his evenings were usually spent in concerts, masquerades, and convivial recreations, in which, soldier-like, he sometimes indulged to excess. If we have only heard of him as entirely given up to intemperance, and the childish amusements of a weak understanding, we ought always to remember that, from one or other cause, his character has only been delineated to us by his enemies and assassins. Nor should it be forgotten, that the regulations he made during his short reign, of only six months, were, after being made matter of accusation against him, adopted successfully, under other auspices, by the Empress his successor.

Nothing could evince more ability and prudence than the conduct of the Empress on her accession to the throne. Her magnanimity too was strikingly displayed in her behaviour towards the friends of the late monarch, who had remained true to his cause. None suffered either by executions, confiscations, or banishment. She reproached indeed Field-Marshal Munnich, whom the emperor had recalled after twenty years exile in Siberia, with having taken part against her. "To my late master, said he, my best services were due. He was my sovereign, and therefore commanded my duty. He was my benefactor and deliverer, and I glory in the testimonies I was able to give him of my gratitude and affection. You, madam, are now my sovereign, and my fidelity to you is as unalterable as my attachment was to him."

Catharine made no reply, but gave him her hand to kiss; and the first news he heard from her was an invitation to court, where he continued in her utmost confidence to the day of his death, which happened on the 16th of October, 1767, in the 85th year of his age. As soon as the apprehension of new commotions was dispelled, Count Vorontzof was released from prison, and afterwards put into office.

The Countess Elizabeth Vorontzof was permitted to enjoy the affluence she had received from the liberality of Peter, and lived at Petersburg among a small circle of friends and relations, by whom her death was lamented in 1791. Godovitch, who was high in the confidence of Peter, and thereby incurred the particular dislike of the Empress, was allowed to retire to his native country; and the Holstein guards, who had offered the Emperor to march against his consort, and even importuned him to lead them on, experienced no severity at her hands: such as were willing to insist were incorporated in the several regiments; and the others withdrew unmolested from Russia. Prince George of Holstein, uncle to Peter, though confined during the revolution, was afterwards promoted to the rank of field-marshal, and appointed administrator of Holstein during the minority of her son.

Catharine was in the 34th year of her age when she ascended the throne, on the 28th of June, O. S. 1762. On the first of September following she departed for Mosco, where the ceremony of her coronation was performed with great solemnity and magnificence, on the 16th of that month; from whence she set out on her return the 14th of June, 1763, and arrived at St. Petersburg the 28th.

However unpopular the peace and alliance so suddenly concluded on the accession of Peter the III^d. with the king of Prussia, and the little probability there was that the close and intimate connection which had subsisted between those two monarchs could greatly recommend the interests of the latter to the new sovereign; yet, fortunately for that wonderful man, the Empress, who had come to the Russian throne in the extraordinary manner that we have seen, could not look upon herself as sufficiently secure to rekindle the flames of a war so destructive in its progress, declared to the king of Prussia's ministers, that she was resolved to observe inviolably, in all points, the perpetual peace concluded under the preceding reign.

Catharine now turned her thoughts to the benefit and improvement of her empire. In the September of 1763 she laid the foundation of the great Foundling Hospital at Mosco. The following year she made a journey into Livonia, to learn the state of that province; and, on her return, was present at the consecration of the Devitza Monastery, instituted for the education of young ladies of quality, endowing it with a salary of 16,000*l.* per annum.

annum. On the 17th of July, 1765, the Empress held the inauguration of the Academy of Arts at St. Petersburg; and in the same year invited literati from Germany, and other parts of Europe, to the Academy of Sciences, which had been instituted by Peter the Great. These persons were, on their arrival, provided with houses and ample salaries, that they might prosecute their studies with ease and convenience.

The year 1766, presented at Petersburg the grandest spectacle that perhaps ever was seen in Europe. At an entertainment, which the Empress chose to name a carouzel, the principal nobility appeared in the most sumptuous dresses sparkling with diamonds, and mounted on horses richly caparisoned, in a magnificent theatre erected for that purpose. Here all that has been read of the ancient jousts and tournaments was realized and exceeded in the presence of thousands of spectators, who seemed to vie with each other in the brilliancy of their appearance.

In 1768, the war broke out with the Ottoman Porte, the various events of which it would scarcely be possible to enumerate, much less to particularize in the space to which this article must of necessity be confined. One event, however, in which our countryman, the Contre-Admiral Greig, displayed his superior conduct and bravery, cannot be passed over. It was on the 24th of October, O. S. 1772, that he burned the Turkish fleet in the harbour of Tschesme in the Archipelago, and destroyed the enemy's magazines. A peace with the Turks was concluded the 10th of July, 1775.

In the year 1773, the Grand Duke Paul Petrovitch married a Princess of the House of Hesse Darmstadt, who, on her baptism into the Greek church, took the name of Natalia Alexievna; but, dying in child-birth the following year, the Grand Duke, in 1776, espoused a daughter of the Duke of Wurtemberg Stutgard, born the 14th of October, 1759, and, on her admission to the national communion, adopted the name of Maria Feodorovna. The Grand Duchess was brought to bed the 12th of December, 1777, of the Grand Duke Alexander Pavlovitch; and on the 27th of April, 1779, was born the Grand Duke Constantine Pavlovitch. These happy events were followed by the birth of the Grand Duchess Alexandra Pavlovna, the 29th

of July, 1783; of Helena Pavlovna, December 13, 1784; of Maria Pavlovna, February 4, 1786; of Catharine Pavlovna, May 10, 1788; of Anna Pavlovna, January 7, 1795; and of Nicolai Pavlovitch, born the 2d of July, 1796.

The care bestowed by the Empress on the education and nurture of her grandchildren was unremitted. Constantine, almost immediately on his birth, was delivered to Greek nurses from the Archipelago, that the language of the Constantines might be familiar to him, whom she one day hoped to seat on their throne. In this grand scheme, of reviving the Grecian empire, it is generally supposed we are to look for the origin of the wars carried on against the Turks. The tutors, appointed to both of the Princes, were selected with care, but the Empress would frequently inspect their lessons, and examine the pupils in the presence of their masters.

In 1768 she composed instructions for a new code of laws for her dominions; and the same year she submitted to the hazard of inoculation, in order that her subjects, to whom the practice was unknown, might benefit by her example; and the experiment, under Baron Dimsdale, having happily succeeded, it was commemorated by an annual thanksgiving. This year a war broke out with the Ottoman Porte. In January, 1769, the Khan of the Crimea made an attack on the territory of Bachmut on the river Bog, where he was several times bravely repulsed, with his army of Tartars and Turks, by Major General Romanius and Prince Prokhoroffkoi. At the same time were fought the battles of Zekanofca and Soroca on the Dniester, when the large magazines of the enemy were burned. In February the Polish Cossaks in the voyvodeship of Braclau put themselves under the Russian sceptre. In the same month the Nisovian Saporogian Cossaks gain a battle in the deserts of the Krim. In March the Polish rebels are subdued and their town taken by Major General Ismailoff. April 2d, the Fort of Taganrock is taken on the Sea of Azoff. On the 15th, the Russian army, under the general in chief, Prince Galitzin, crosses the Dniester. On the 19th the victory by Prince Galitzin near Chotyim. On the 21st the Turks are defeated not far from Chotyim by Lieut. Gen. Count Soltikoff. The 29th, the action between the Russian Kalmucs, and the Kuban Tartars, to the disadvantage of the latter. June 8th, defeat of the Turks at the mouth

of the Dnieper near Otchakof. 19. Action on the Dniester, when the troops of Prince Prozorofskoi force the Turks to repass the river in great disorder. Chot-yim taken Sept. 19. Yassy, in Moldavia, taken Sept. 27. Bucharest, in Wallachia taken, and the hospodar made prisoner, in November. 1770. Victory gained by the Russians under Generals Podhorilshany and Potemkin, near Fokshany. The town of Shursha taken by Lieut. Gen. Von Stoffeln, Feb. 4. A Russian fleet appears in the Port of Maina in the Morea, Feb. 17. Mistra, the Lacedæmon of the ancients, and several other towns of the Morea, taken, in February. Surrender of Arcadim in Greece, and a multitude of Turks made prisoners in the same month. The Turks and Tartars are driven from their intrenchments near the Pruth, by Count Romantzof, Prince Repnin, and General Bauer, 11-16 June. Prince Prozorofskoi gains several advantages near Otchakof, June 18. The Russian fleet, under Count Alexey Orlof, gains a complete victory over the Turks near Tschesme, June 24. The consequent destruction of the whole Turkish fleet, near Tschesme, where it was burned by Admiral Greig, June 26. Battle on the Kagul, in which Count Romantzof defeats the Turkish army, consisting of 150,000 men, takes the camp and all the artillery, July 21. The fortress Bender taken July 22. The town of Ismail taken by prince Repnin, July 26. Kilia taken by Prince Repnin, Aug. 21. Ackerman taken in October. Brailof taken Nov. 10. 1771. The fortress of Shursha taken by General Olitz, Feb. 23. The town of Kassa taken by Prince Dolgoruckof, June 29. The fort of Kertchi taken July 2. The fort of Yenicali taken July 3. With numberless other victories, by sea and land, till the peace was concluded the 13th of January 1775, by which the Crimea was declared independent of the Porte, all the vast tract of country between the Bog and Dnieper was ceded to Russia, besides the Cuban and the isle of Taman, with free navigation in all the Turkish seas, including the passage of the Dardanelles, privileges granted to the most favoured nations, and stipulations in behalf of the inhabitants of Moldavia and Wallachia.

In 1779, the Empress, intending to divide the empire into viceroyalties, made a beginning in January with the viceroyalty of Orlof. March 21, a new treaty was signed at Constantinople between

Russia and the Porte. May 13, the treaty of peace between the belligerent powers in Germany and the French King was signed under the mediation of her Majesty. In June she established an hospital for invalids at Mosco, to be confined to officers. In July General Bauer received orders to cause a canal to be cut to supply Mosco with wholesome water. In October a ship built at Taganrock, named the Prince Constantine, sailed to Smyrna with Russian commodities. December 3, the viceroyalty of Voronetsh was instituted; and the 27th Count Romantzof Zadunaiski opened the viceroyalty of Kursk with great solemnity.

In 1780, Feb. 28, appeared the memorable declaration of her Imperial Majesty, relating to the safety of navigation and commerce of the neutral powers. May 9, the Empress set out on a journey to White Russia from Zarscoi Selo, visits Narva, Plesco, meets the Emperor of Germany under the title of Count Falkenstein, at Mohilef, pursue the journey together to Smolensk. June 6, Count Falkenstein arrives at Mosco. The 17th the Empress returns to Zarscoe Selo, and the Count Falkenstein to St. Petersburg. July 8, the Emperor, Joseph II. returns to Vienna. Sept. the present King of Prussia in St. Petersburg, and returns to Berlin the 4th of November.

In 1781, March 1, the Empress mediates between England and Holland. April 5, institutes the first public school in Petersburg. August 27, the grand Dukes Alexander and Constantine were inoculated by Baron Dimsdale. Aug. 31, the first stone of a cathedral was laid at Cherson, dedicated to St. Catherine. Sept. 19, the grand Duke Paul Petrovitch and his consort Maria Feodorovna depart from Zarscoe Selo, through Plescof, Mohilef, and Kief, on a journey into foreign countries, under the title of the Count and Countess of the North.

In 1782, by command of her Majesty, dated Jan. 18, a Roman Catholic archbishopric was erected in the city of Mohilef, with authority over all the catholic churches and convents in the Russian empire. Aug. 7, the famous equestrian statue of Peter the Great, being finished, was uncovered to the public in presence of the Empress, on which occasion she published a proclamation containing pardons for several criminals, &c. Sept. 22, the order of St. Vladimir instituted. The 27th, publishes a new Tariff. Nov. 20, the grand Duke and his Dukes, having com-

completed their travels through Germany, Italy, France, Holland, the Netherlands, &c. return to St. Petersburg.

In 1783, May 7, the Empress institutes a seminary for the education of young persons of quality at Kursk. June 21, a treaty of commerce concluded with the Ottoman Porte. July, the institution of the other viceroyalties of the empire follow in succession. July 21, the Empress published a manifesto, by her commander in chief Prince Potemkin, in the Krim, in regard to the taking possession of that peninsula, the Kuban, and the island of Taman. The 24th a treaty was concluded with Heraclius II. tzar of Kartalinia and Kachetti, by which he submits himself, his heirs and successors for ever, with his territories and dominions, to the sceptre of her Majesty, and her heirs and successors. The 29th, account was received from the camp of Prince Potemkin at Karas-Basar, that the clergy, the beys, and other persons of distinction, with the towns of Karasbasar, Bachtshisarai, Achmetshet, Kassa, Kosloff, with the districts of Turkanskoikut and Neubasar, and that of Perekop, in the peninsula of the Krim, together with the hordes of Edissank and Dshambolusk, the Sultan Alim Girey, and his vassals, with all the Budshaks and Bathkirs there, and all the tribes dwelling beyond the River Kuban, the Sultan Baatur Girey and his vassals, have taken the oath of allegiance to her Imperial Majesty, and with willing hearts submitted for ever to her glorious sway. The 30th, the hospodar of Vallachia was deposed, and Draco Surzo set up in his place. Sept. 22, her Majesty raised Gabriel, archbishop of Novgorod and St. Petersburg, to the dignity of metropolitan. Oct. 21, in the great hall of the academy of sciences, the new institution of the Imperial Russian academy was opened, after a solemn consecration by the Metropolit Gabriel, and other of the clergy, under the presidency of Princess Dashkoff. Nov. 7, the Empress is mediatrix for accommodating the difference between the King of Prussia and the city of Dantzic. The school for surgery was opened at Petersburg the 18th. Dec. 13, a school-commission was instituted for supervising all the public schools. The 28th, an act was concluded with the Ottoman Porte, by which the possession and sovereignty of the Krim, the Kuban, &c. were solemnly authenticated to the Empress.

1784. Jan. 1, the senate most humbly thanks her Majesty for the benefactions she has graciously bestowed on the whole

empire in the last year, in a speech by general field-marshal Count Razomoffskoi. The 18th, the Roman Catholic archbishop of Mohilef, Stanislaus Tshesrentshevitch of Bogush, constituted by her Majesty, is, with a variety of church ceremonies, solemnly invested, in the Roman Catholic Church at St. Petersburg, with the pallium from his holiness the Pope, by the papal ambassador Count Archetti, archbishop of Chalcedon. Oct. 14, the Lesgiers, having crossed the river Alasan, invaded the dominions of Georgia, were repulsed with great loss by a detachment of Russian troops. Dec. 29, Katolikos Maksim, the serdar and court-marshal Prince Zeretelli, and the chief justice Kuinichese, ambassadors from David, tzar of Imeretia, were admitted to a public audience of her Majesty, at which they submitted, in the name of the tzar, him and his subjects, to the will and powerful protection of her Imperial Majesty, as the rightful head of all the sons of the orthodox eastern church, and sovereign ruler and defender of the Georgian nations.

1785. Jan. 1, the senate, in the name of the empire, humbly thanks her Majesty for the benefits she has bestowed upon it in the foregoing year. The 8th and 15th, the Empress, in person, holds a public examination of the young ladies educated in the Devitza Monastir. The 12th, Mauro Cordato, hospodar of Vallachia, was deposed, and Alexander Mauro Cordato, his uncle, restored to that dignity. The 21st, the Empress visited the principal national school, and passed a long time in examining the classes, and the proficiency of the youth in that seminary: on which occasion a marble tablet was fixed in the wall of the fourth class, with this inscription in gold letters: THOU VISITEST THE VINEYARD WHICH THY OWN HAND HATH PLANTED, JAN. 21, 1785. April 21, the privileges of the nobility were confirmed; and, on the same day, the burghers of towns constituted into bodies corporate, by a particular manifesto. The public school in Veronetska was opened. The 24th of May, her Majesty goes to inspect the famous sluices at Vishney Volotshok, and other water-communications, and from thence proceeds to Mosco. June 19, her Majesty returns to St. Petersburg. July 3, she visits the hardware manufactories at Sisterbeck, in Finland. 14th, a manifesto, granting full liberty of religion and commerce, to all foreigners settling in the regions of Mount Caucasus, under her government. Sept. 15, the public school

at Nishney Novgorod opened. Oct. 12, the Jesuits, in White Russia, in a general assembly, elect a vicar-general of their order. Nov. 1, a treaty of commerce with the Emperor of Germany. The 24th, the Russian Consul, in Alexandria, makes his public entry on horseback (an honour never before granted to any power); erects the Imperial standard on his house, with discharge of cannon, &c. Dec. 28, a Russian mercantile frigate, full freighted, arrives at Leghorn from Constantinople.

1786. Jan. 1, senate returns thanks for benefits conferred on the empire. The 11th to 16th, the new election of persons to the offices in the Petersburg government; ending with masquerade and illuminations. The 29th, the Empress confirms the plan of a navigation school. Feb. 12, by a decree, the usual slavish subscriptions to petitions, &c. are to be discontinued; and instead thereof, only the words, *bumble or faithful subject*; and, in certain cases, only *subject* to be used. March 2, the Empress grants the university of Mosco 125,000 roubles, and all the materials of the palace Kremlin, for increasing its buildings. The 25th, a decree for making and repairing the roads throughout the whole empire, at the sole expence of the crown, without the least burden to the subject, and four millions of roubles were immediately allotted for the road between St. Petersburg and Mosco. April 10, a new war establishment for the army was signed. 23, the hospodar of Valachia was deposed, and Mavroyeni set up in his place. June 28, the Empress institutes a loan bank at Petersburg, to the fund whereof she allots 33 millions of roubles, of which 22 millions to be advanced to the nobility, and 11 millions to the burghers of the towns, on very advantageous terms. Aug. 5, publishes rules to be observed in the public schools. Oct. 4, a large Russian ship, with Russian products, from Petersburg, arrives at Cadiz. Nov. 24, the Empress erects public schools at Tambou. Dec. 14, Prince Ypsilanti is appointed hospodar of Moldavia in the room of the deposed Mauro Cordato. Dec. 31, a treaty of commerce and navigation between Russia and France.

1787. Jan. 1, the senate thanks for favours received by the empire. 7, the Empress departs from Zarskoi Selo on a journey to her southern dominions. 29, after having visited the towns of Veliki-Luki, Smolensk, Starodub, Novgorod-Severskoi, Beresua, Tchernigof, &c.

leaving testimonies of her clemency and bounty in each, arrives at Kief. Feb. 6—7, the deposed hospodar of Moldavia, Mauro Cordato, thinking his life not safe in Yaffi, finds opportunity privately to escape. March, public schools are endowed and opened at Rostof, Ugolish, Malaga, and Romanof, in the viceroyalty of Yaroslaf; also at Ustiug and Arasovitz, in the viceroyalty of Vologda. April 21, a manifesto for promoting peace and concord among the burghers of the empire. The 22d, her Majesty pursues her journey from Kief to the Dnieper. The 25th, the concerted interview between her and the King of Poland, near the Polish town of Konief. The 30th, the Empress visits Kremenshuk, in the viceroyalty of Katarinoslaf. The treaty of commerce with England being expired, the British factory were informed that they must henceforward pay the duties on imports in silver money like the other nations, who have no commercial treaty. May. 7, the Empress hearing that the Emperor of Germany is at Cherson, proceeds thither, and meets him there the 12th. The 17th, she prosecutes her journey to the Krim. 30, the Grand Duchesses Helena and Alexandria Pavlevna are inoculated. June 2, the Emperor, after travelling with her Majesty through the Krim, takes leave of her at Borisslauff, in the viceroyalty of Katarinoslaf, to go home. 23, the Empress having returned from the Krim, through Kremenskuk, Poltava Kursk, Orel, and Tula, arrives at the village of Kolomensk, 7 versts from Mosco. June 28, the 25th anniversary of her reign, she displays various marks of her bounty. The debtors to the crown are forgiven, prisoners released, imposts taken off, soldiers rewarded, &c. July 4, returns over Tver, Tula, Valdai, Vishnei-Volotshok, and Novgorod, to Zarskoe Selo, where she arrives the 11th. 12th, the new built town-school at Riga, called the Lyceum, solemnly dedicated. Aug. 5, Bulgakoff, her ambassador at the Ottoman Porte, is imprisoned in the Seven Towers, contrary to the law of nations, which the Empress takes as a public declaration of war. 21st, the Turkish fleet, at Orchakof, attack the Russian frigate Skorui, and the sloop Bitingi, but was repulsed and put to flight by the bravery of the latter. Many signal advantages are gained over the Turks; several public schools founded in various parts of the empire between this and the August following, in which time the war breaks out with Sweden.

1788. Aug.

1788. August 12, in the expedition beyond the Kuban, the Russian troops entirely routed a company of 4000 Arutayans and Abasinians; 800 of the enemy were slain, and five villages destroyed. 15th, surrender of the Turkish fortrefs of Dubitsha. 18th, the Turks made a violent sortie from Otchakof, but were repulsed by the Russian yagers, and, after a battle of four hours, were driven back with the loss of 500 men. 23d, a fierce battle was fought between the Russian troops and the Sacubanians, in which the latter lost 1000 men. The Russian fleet keeps the Swedish blocked up in Sveaborg, ever since the battle of July 6. The Swedish army leaves the Russian territory in Finland. September 18, surrender of the town and fortrefs of Chotyia, with the garrison of 2000 men, 153 cannon, 14 mortars, and much ammunition. 19th—29th, a small Russian squadron from the fleet at Sevastopol, cruising along the coast of Anatolia, destroys many of the enemy's vessels, prevents the transport of the Turkish troops, and returns with great booty. 20th, Uffenier Shamanachin, chief of the Bsheduchovians, was, on his petition, admitted a subject of Russia. 26th, a numerous host of Kubanians and Turks were beat on the river Ubin, with the loss of 1500 men. November 7, Prince Potemkin, at the head of his Cossaks, takes the island Beresan, with many prisoners, and much ammunition. December 6th, the town and fortrefs of Otchakof taken by Prince Potemkin Tavritsheskoï; 9510 of the enemy were killed, 4000 taken prisoners, 180 standards, 310 cannons and mortars. The whole of the inhabitants taken prisoners amounted to 25,000 persons; the Russians lost 956 killed and 1824 wounded. December 19, General Kamenskoy gains considerable advantage over the Turks near Gangur.

1789. April 16th, Colonel Rimskoy Korsakoff is surrounded by the Turks, who are beat with great slaughter by Lieutenant General Von Derfelden. 17th—28th, some Russian cruizers from Sevastopol effected a landing on Cape Karakaiman, burnt 6 mosques, and carried off great booty. 20th, Lieutenant General Derfelden drives the Turks from Galatsh, gains a complete victory, kills 2000, takes 1500 prisoners, with the Seraskier Ibrahim Pasha, and the whole camp. Several skirmishes between the Russians and Swedes in Finland, always to the advantage of the

former. May 31st, victory over the Swedes. June 5th, Sulkof taken from the Swedes, and Fort St. Michael on the 8th. July 15th, Admiral Tchitchagoff engages the Swedish fleet under command of the Duke of Sudermania; no ship lost on either side. 21st, battle of Fokshany, to the great loss of the Turks. Fokshany taken. August 13th, the Russian galley-fleet fights the Swedish fleet under Count Ehrenschwerdt, the former takes a frigate and 5 other ships, and 2000 prisoners. August 21st, another sea-fight; Prince Nassau Siegen makes good his landing of the Russian troops, in sight of the King of Sweden, at the head of his army. September 7th, Prince Repnin attacks the Seraskier Hassan Pasha near the river Selska, and takes his whole camp. 11th, Count Suvoroff and Prince of Saxe Cobourg engage, near the river Kymnik, the grand Turkish army of between 90 and 100,000 men, and gain a complete victory; from which Count Suvoroff bears the surname Kymnikskoi. 14th, the Russian troops under Major General Ribbas take the Turkish citadel Chodshabey, in the sight of the whole of the enemy's fleet. 30th, the fortrefs Palanka being taken, the town of Belgorod or Akermann surrenders to Prince Potemkin Tavritsheskoï. November 4th, the town and castle of Bender submit at discretion to the same commander.

1790. April 24, General Numfen gains a victory near Memel. May 2d, a sea-fight off Reval, in which the Russians take the Prince Charles, of 64 guns, from the Swedes, in which engagement those two gallant English officers, Captains Trevennen and Denison were killed. 23d, the fleet under Vice Admiral Cruse engages the Swedish fleet near the island Siskar, in the Gulph of Finland, without any advantage on either side, though they fought the whole day. 24th, the action at Savataipala, when the Swedes are forced to fly. June 6th, the Swedes defeated by Major Buxheuden, on the island Uranfari. June 22d, the whole Swedish fleet, commanded by the Duke of Sudermania, entirely defeated by Admiral Tchitchagoff and the Prince of Nassau Siegen; on this occasion 5000 prisoners were taken, amongst whom were the centre-admiral and 200 officers. 28th, General Denisoff defeats the Swedes near Davidoff. July 9, Admiral Ushakoff obtains a victory over the Turkish fleet commanded by the Capudan Pasha, at the mouth of the Straits of Yenikali. August

August 3d, peace was concluded with Sweden, without the mediation of any other power. August 28th, 29th, an engagement on the Euxine, not far from Chodihabey, between the Russian Admiral Ushakoff, and the Capudan Pasha; when the principal Turkish ship, of 80 guns, was burnt, one of 70 guns and three others taken, the Admiral Said Bey being made prisoner, and another ship sunk, the rest made off. September 30th, a great victory obtained over the Turks by General Germann, with much slaughter, the Seraskier Batal Bey and the whole camp taken. October 18th, Kilia surrenders to Major Ribbas. November 6th, 7th, the fortress Kultsha and the Turkish flotilla taken. December 11th, the important fortress of Ismail, after a storming for seven hours without intermission, surrenders to Count Suvoroff Kymnikskoi, with the garrison of 42,000 men, 30,816 were slain on the spot, 2000 died of their wounds, 9000 taken prisoners, 265 pieces of cannon, an incredible store of ammunition, &c. The Russians lost only 1815 killed, and 2450 wounded.

1791. March 25th—31st, the campaign opened by the troops under the command of Prince Potemkin Tavritshevskoi, not far from Brailof, when the Turks were defeated in several battles, in which they lost upwards of 4000 men. June 5th, the troops under General Golenitshof Kutusoff, near Tultsha, drove the Turks beyond the Danube, and at Babada entirely routed a body of 15,000 men, of whom 1500 were left dead upon the place. 22d, the fortress Anap was taken by storm, when the whole garrison, consisting of 25,000 men, were put to the sword, excepting 1000 who were taken prisoners. 28th, the troops under the command of Prince Repnin attacked the Turkish army, consisting of near 80,000 men, commanded by the Grand Vizir Yussuf Pasha, 8 Pashas, 2 Tartar Sultans, and 2 Beys of Anatolia, and after a bloody battle of six hours entirely routed them; 5000 Turks were killed in their flight. June 28th, Sudskuk Kale taken. July 31st, Admiral Ushakoff beats the Turkish fleet on the coasts of Rumelia. 31st, the General in Chief, Prince Repnin, and the Grand Vizir, Yussuf Pasha, conclude and sign the preliminary articles of peace between the Russian empire and the Ottoman Porte; by which the Dniester is made the boundary of the two empires, with the cession of the countries

lying between the Bog and the Dniester to Russia. August 15th, 16th, at Pillnitz, near Dresden, a Congress was held by the Emperor of Germany, the King of Prussia, the Elector of Saxony, the Count d'Artois, &c. &c. &c.

It would be impossible here to do justice to the character of this extraordinary sovereign. Born with strong natural capacities, she had neglected no means of their improvement; and, from the moment she ascended the throne, she seems to have devoted her talents to the improvement and prosperity of her empire. In the business of government her industry and application are almost unexampled; while her ministers discharged the routine of their several departments, she was consulting the more arduous exigencies of both domestic and foreign concerns. Her time of rising was generally between five and six in the morning, and, in the long winters of that climate, she was usually at business three or four hours before day-break. She was not less temperate than industrious; she usually sat down to dinner at one; never remained long at table; and her time of going to rest was about ten at night. The uncommon evenness of her temper may, perhaps, be attributed in a great measure to the regularity and temperance of her life. Her perspicacity was such, that she was seldom mistaken in persons almost at their first appearance. So methodical was she in the distribution of her time, that amid the various cares of administration, the great benefits she was contriving and bestowing on her vast empire, it was not one of the least that she could allot so much of it to the education of her grand-children. All manifestoes and state papers were of her original composition. She encouraged industry; she liberally rewarded merit; she invited arts and talents from every foreign nation, to improve and adorn her own extensive empire. She was the munificent patroness of literature in every country of Europe; she maintained the security of her subjects by an impartial administration of justice; she convoked deputies from all the provinces of the empire to prepare a rational and uniform code of laws, the instructions for which, being a very thick folio, is not only of her own composition, but entirely in her own hand-writing; and what above all is worthy of being remembered to her immortal honour, she granted many franchises to the peasants on her own demesnes; she ordained that all causes
between

between noblemen and their vassals should be tried before tribunals composed of both these orders; and she directed her whole system of internal policy to a gradual, but complete and universal, emancipation of the Russian peasantry. No examples have happened in her reign of a wanton and cruel abuse of absolute authority for the oppression of individuals. If she had ambition, it was the ambition of a truly great and elevated mind. Conscious of that dignity, no one ever more despised the empty arts of adulation; and when Diderot, putting himself into a transport of French extasy, in admiration of the grandeur and dimensions of her palace, thought to flatter her by adding: "Ah, madame! mais si le palais avoir assez de largeur pour contenir tous les heureux qu'a fait son possesseur!" She received it with indignation, and it cost him her favour for ever. She aspired not only to the fame of victory and conquest, but to the more solid and innocent glory of founding laws, of patronising letters, of diffusing industry, civilization, and opulence, throughout her vast dominions. Her empire was flourishing at home; her arms were victorious, and her name formidable abroad. She may, in a general point of view, be regarded as a model for ambitious princes. She performed all the duties which the morality of ambition prescribes; she both improved and extended her empire.

If we try her conduct by the purer code of reason and humanity, even with all the indulgence due to the frailties of our common nature, to the allurements of supreme authority, and to the fascinations of martial glory, the most partial friends to her memory will not provoke a dangerous scrutiny by indiscreet encomiums on her exemplary conduct in those particulars. A prudent panegyrist will dwell lightly on the steps by which she mounted the throne. The only palliation of that measure, which the most friendly ingenuity can suggest, will be derived from the weakness and imprudence of her husband, from the evils that might have arisen to the empire from his injudicious administration, involving an immensity of mischief to so large a portion of the human race, and from the frequent usurpations to which the Russians had in a manner been habituated since the death of Peter the Great. He might urge too, that the court of Petersburg, with a specious exterior of European manners, has still a strong taint of Asiatic barbarism, where a settled and

invariable order of succession to the crown does not impose silence on the ambitious claim of rival princes. But there are some acts, at the recital of which we should shudder, even if the scene were laid in the empire of Morocco. The dark mysterious fate of Prince Ivan, in 1765, can never be obliterated from the annals of her reign; and if a no less dismal tragedy in 1775 does not yet sully the page of history, it is recorded in indelible characters in many a feeling heart. The blood spilt in the long conceived scheme of expelling the Turks from Europe, and re-establishing the eastern empire in the person of another Constantine, will not be expiated in the eyes of humanity by the gigantic magnificence of the project. Above all, the wound inflicted on the principle of national independence through the sides of Poland; the dissensions and civil wars industriously fomented in that unhappy kingdom for a period of thirty years; the horrible massacres which attended its final subjugation, and the impious mockery of returning solemn thanks to heaven for the success of such atrocious crimes, will be a foul and indelible stain upon the memory of Catherine. If ever the fatal practice of dismemberment and partition shall prevail to such an extent as to destroy the whole security of European nations, it will not be forgotten that Catherine II. gave the first example in modern times, of blotting a great kingdom out of the list of independent states. Her conduct during the present war, has, in a political view, been highly honourable to her great talents; and, in a moral view, has been such as the allied powers, at least, have no right to blame. She has kept the Turks from falling upon Austria, prevented a confederacy from taking place in the north, kept Sweden and Prussia in awe, and extirpated the devoted Poles. Her policy was to exhaust her rivals, and to place herself in that situation which England once enjoyed, of being the umpire of the European states; and as to fidelity and honour, she has been as faithful to her allies as they have been to their professed common cause, and to their pretended general object. They pursued their supposed interest at the expence of their professions and engagements, and she did no more. "The princes of Europe, (says Mr. Burke) were easily led to consider the flames that were consuming France, not as a warning to protect their own buildings, but as a happy oc-

CASION FOR PILLAGING THE GOODS, AND FOR CARRYING OFF THE MATERIALS OF THEIR NEIGHBOUR'S HOUSE." "Some fought an accession of strength at the expence of France; some at the expence of each other; some at the expence of third parties." "THERE COULD BE NO TIE OF HONOUR IN A SOCIETY FOR PILLAGE!" Letters on a peace, &c. page 146, 148, 149. Such a picture, drawn by the hand of a great master, we shall not presume to deface by any touch of ours.—England, under pretence of restoring order in France, aimed at the acquisition of Dunkirk and the colonies, Austria, with the same professions, at the conquest of Flanders and Alsace. The Empress of Russia, because she was too remote to make conquests from France, plotted and perpetrated the robbery of Poland, and consulted the interest of her ambition and her greatness by encouraging her most formidable rivals to waste and exhaust their strength. The motives were similar, the conduct was of the same sort, the morality was equal, and the consummate skill and masterly policy of the Empress Catherine have vindicated the superiority of her exalted genius, above the puny intriguers, to whom in this crisis of the fate of Europe, heaven, for the punishment of our offences, has committed the management of the affairs of nations. She was more politic than her allies, and as honest.

Catherine II. after a reign of 34 years, during all which time she enjoyed an uninterrupted flow of excellent health, complained, on the 4th of November, O. S. towards the evening, of some slight pain in the bowels, which usually accompanied a gentle diarrhœa to which she was occasionally subject, and which she regarded, with much reason, as a principal cause of her continual health. Next morning, November 5th, O. S. her principal femme de chambre, Maria Savishna, made the usual inquiries concerning her Majesty's health, and how she had passed the night, when Catherine assured her that she never was better, nor had ever enjoyed a more sound repose, desiring, as she lay yet in bed, to know what sort of weather reigned abroad; and being answered, a gentle frost of two degrees, with snow, her Majesty exclaimed, that she could have almost divined that to be the case, as she commonly slept best in frosty weather. The Empress being got up and dressed, went into her cabi-

net, after drinking a dish of coffee, to pass some time, according to her constant custom, in writing, till the hour of the arrival of her ministers to transact business. About ten o'clock in the forenoon, the first valet de chambre Zachari, being returned from executing a little commission on which he had been sent (with papers to prince Zuboff, grand master of the artillery, &c.), not finding her Majesty in her cabinet, after waiting an unusual time for her coming out of her most private closet, in an inner room, opened the door, as if to go through the large chamber in which it stood, in one corner, within a kind of venetian tent, was surprized to see her Majesty's feet sticking out of the closet door, having apparently been struck with the fit of apoplexy that killed her, whilst seated on the stool within, and slipped down from it in this position, as her body was found lying between that and the wall, while her feet, as said above, pushed open the door and appeared without. She languished till about ten at night on the 6th, when she expired, without having shewn the least sign of sensibility from the moment of the accident. On opening her head, a small blood-vessel was found burst, the immediate cause of her death. The faculty, proceeding to open the corpse, found a couple of small gall stones in the gall bladder, but which could have had little share in the death of the Empress.

Some were of opinion that she only fainted on the stool, and that the blood vessel was burst by the fall.—But such a supposition seemed to the rest unnecessary, as an extravasation of blood is common in apoplexies.

The day following the new Emperor made his public entry into St. Petersburg, amidst the acclamations of all ranks of people. What measures may be pursued by a Prince whose talents have never yet, at the age of 42, been called forth either in the cabinet or the field, on coming suddenly from retreat and silence into the disposal of the treasures and power of that immense empire, it is impossible at present to divine; but from the general character of PAUL PETROVITCH, it may be presumed that he will take that part in the present crisis which will be most favourable to the cause of humanity, by offering his mediation to the belligerent powers, for putting a stop to the horrid ravages of the present cruel and flagitious war.

A COM-

A
COMPARISON
BETWEEN THE
ANCIENT AND MODERN STYLES OF MUSIC,
IN WHICH THE
Merits and Demerits of each are respectively pointed out.

SINCE the great revolution in instrumental music, it has been too much the custom in England for musical amateurs to be prejudiced in favour of one of the two styles, either the ancient or the modern, and to reprobate the other. They do this as though the encouragement of both styles must necessarily interfere, or that the one could not possibly flourish without the extinction of the other. By the new style or species of composition here alluded to, is meant that of the modern symphony, in which string and wind instruments are mixed together, and that of the solo-concerto, concertante, &c. as opposed to the ancient style of overtures on Lully's plan, and of full concertos with *repieno* parts for string instruments exclusively. This revolution in music seems to have been chiefly occasioned by a more general knowledge of the powers and effects of wind instruments.

The partial attachment of amateurs to one style has, perhaps, been too much countenanced by the managers of the principal subscription concerts in London, who always adhere entirely either to the ancient or the modern style, and do not admit of a mixture of both. On such conduct I cannot but remark, that if the managers of the Concert of Ancient Music wish to discountenance the *modern* style of composition, and to encourage the *ancient*, by suffering no piece of music to be performed that has not been composed within a limited number of years, they entirely frustrate their own design. What composer, however, attached to, or capable of writing in the ancient style (of which there are doubtless many in the metropolis) can have the least encouragement to do so, whilst his works must necessarily be rejected at both the above mentioned concerts; at those of modern music, on account of its antique style, and at those of ancient music, because recently composed. Such music, however excellent, can, therefore, only be performed at the inferior concerts, or at benefits. In these the profiting parties always find it

their interest to blend the two styles together, with a view to accommodate all tastes. They take especial care to present the votaries of each style with a few pieces adapted to their several tastes, without regard to the other pieces; and, in consequence, produce, by this variety and contrast, much greater satisfaction to nine-tenths of the audience.

With regard to the votaries of the two styles, I have always observed that *elderly* people are generally the most attached to the ancient, and *young* people to the modern music. The reason for which, the *former* will, perhaps, assert to be obvious, and that people of experience and mature judgment will naturally prefer the good solid harmony of the ancient system to the light and trifling music of the new.

Perhaps, however, there may be other reasons for this preference, at least *equally* obvious. People who have been long accustomed or confined to a particular system (as elderly people must formerly have been), especially if they are performers, find the modern music more difficult in its execution from the mere *novelty* of the style, and the rapidity with which its *allegros* and *prestos* are required to be performed. Thorough bass players, who have been chiefly used to the works of old authors, object to the reiterated quavers on the same note, frequently introduced in the modern symphonies, it being more difficult to read them and to distinguish one bar from another. Tenor players also, who were barely qualified to amuse themselves with the performance of the works of Corelli, Geminiani, Handel, &c. in which that instrument has always the least to execute, find in modern music that it is frequently made of equal consequence with the other instruments, and requires, therefore, much the same degree of execution and attention.

Another difficulty to performers of moderate abilities occurs in modern music, in the want of *repieno* parts. Formerly if a good leading first and second violin, and principal bass, could be procured,

cured, very indifferent players were competent to make up the rest of the orchestra, the principal parts being generally played single, whilst the *repie-nos* were doubled, or even trebled. In modern music, however, all the violins and basses are generally obliged to take principal parts. Amateurs, therefore, who have applied to music as a *secondary* amusement, and as such have not spent the greater part of their leisure in the practice of it, nevertheless find themselves at a loss, and are disconcerted in not being able to support their parts so well in modern pieces as they did in the ancient.

But though modern music, for these reasons, may not be so greatly enjoyed, yet surely it by no means follows that it is inferior either in its kind or quality, especially since the apparent difficulties of it are not found to be so great as to occasion any deficiency of good performers. Those who have principally applied themselves to modern music, find it, *in some respects*, easier to perform than the *repieno* parts of the old concertos, wherein great accuracy is required in counting the rests, and keeping the time in *adagios*, *fugues*, &c.

Instead, however, of attempting to determine which of the two styles is the best, or the most rational, I shall subjoin a few thoughts on the merits and demerits of each.

The ANCIENT MUSIC, in all the classic authors, abounds with fine harmony, simple melody, and with good and natural modulation. The melody is, however, frequently not confined, as in modern music, to a single part, to which the others are mere accompaniments, but dispersed throughout all the parts. The second violin part is nearly as airy and of as much consequence as the first. The bass sometimes (particularly in Corelli) is of as much or more consequence than either of the violins; consequently, although a first violin performer may find less air in the ancient than in modern music, yet the other performers will find more; and to an audience, who judge of the effect from the whole, there will, perhaps (in many pieces that may be selected), seem to be as much air in the ancient style as in the modern. The ancient composers were also, in general, very correct and accurate in their compositions, particularly with regard to the avoiding of consecutive fifths and eighths, and in attending to uniformity of metre in every strain.

The demerits of the ancient music seem to proceed from the author frequently being content with mere correctness of composition, and adhering closely to the subject, without regard to light and shade, or to what is understood by modern amateurs, under the general denomination of *effect*. Many entire movements (and sometimes whole pieces) of ancient composers, have not a single *piano* marked in them. There is also, from the same cause, sometimes a barrenness of air or melody. They appear to have frequently thought it sufficient that their works should possess good harmony and classical accuracy, and stand the test of theoretical examination. This, however, at best, is but negative praise. The same merits might exist without melody being much attended to; melody being, indeed, of a mere arbitrary nature, cannot be subjected to those mechanical rules of criticism by which harmony is judged. On these accounts many ancient pieces, in which all the rules of composition are more strictly observed than in many modern pieces, prove dry and uninteresting, and totally devoid of taste and effect.

If in modern music harmony be not so much attended to, nor made so essential a requisite as in the ancient, yet melody is certainly more regarded, and rendered more distinct, from its being generally confined to the uppermost part in the composition. Though the air is frequently divided among the different parts, as in the ancient style, and is not always engrossed by the first violin or leading part, still whichever part possesses the air, or *pro tempore* takes the lead, that part for the time is usually the upper one. This certainly renders the air the more predominant and intelligible than where it is inclosed, if I may so speak, between accompaniments.

Greater attention is also generally paid by modern composers to contrast and effect. These they produce, partly by the more general use of *pianos* and *fortes*, and the introduction of the *crescendo* and *diminuendo*, and partly by the introduction of a greater variety of instruments than were in common use among the ancients. Wind instruments, in particular, which are now in general use, were formerly never introduced, except in theatrical accompaniments. In respect to modulation, it seems, at the present period, to be quite as much, if not more, attended to than it was formerly. Many new effects in modern music are almost solely

solely produced by due attention to modulation. The fashionable composers, HAYDN and PLEYEL, by avoiding occasionally the regular and studied uniformity of modulation and style, which has been generally adopted by most of their predecessors, have certainly attained far more originality and greater variety.

In *Chamber Music*, the moderns have likewise, by the introduction of quartettos, quintettos, &c. made considerable improvement. The ancients had chiefly confined themselves, in this species of music, to trios for two violins and a bass. These, though complete in themselves, have yet been greatly improved by the addition of a tenor. This latter instrument fills up the harmony without double stops, which have generally a bad effect, from the necessity of using open strings, and the difficulty of stopping them in time. It moreover gives an opportunity for one of the parts to rest occasionally for a few bars, by which means a much greater contrast can be attained than with fewer instruments.

MODERN MUSIC certainly also has its share of demerits. As too much attention is sometimes paid to harmony in the ancient music, to the neglect of melody and contrast, so in the modern too much attention is frequently paid to air and contrast, to the neglect of harmony, and sometimes of modulation. *Harmony and melody are essential to all good music, as well as modulation and contrast.* If the pieces be not very short, none of these essentials ought to be particularly regarded, to the exclusion of the others, except, however, in cases where, to vary the style, any of them may be made to predominate occasionally.

Another fault of modern composition is, that the strains are frequently *much too long and tedious*. On this account much music, in which no other fault can be found, is thrown away upon an audience, and which, if properly managed, might have given pleasure, and excited attention throughout. Though many ancient pieces may also be thought too long, yet their length is generally occasioned by the *number* of the strains of which they consist. These succeeding each other in different measures and degrees of time, prevent the tediousness occasioned by a single strain or movement protracted to a great length. This fault, in the length of the strains in modern music, occurs the most frequently in solo concertos, in which the body of the composition may be considered as a mere

vehicle for conveying *particular passages* that are intended to exhibit the execution and dexterity of the performer. In these solos, many pauses are introduced to give him an opportunity of showing off in an *ad libitum* cadence, which (though generally unconnected with the subject of the piece) is frequently the only part attended to by the audience. These cadences are also constantly introduced by a very full noisy passage, seeming to announce to the audience what is to follow, and induce them to resume their attention to the music.

Among the demerits of modern music may also be reckoned the too great extension of the compass of the violoncello, tenor, and violin. The former of these is too frequently made to encroach on the scale of the tenor, which not possessing the capacity of extending its scale downwards, into that of the violoncello, is made to encroach in its turn on the scale of the violin; which latter instrument, having no superior, whose province it may encroach on, is at liberty to range to an unlimited height, or finds no other boundary than the bridge.—Were, however, *first-rate performers and professors* only to avail themselves of this extension of compass, and were even they to be more sparing in the practice of it, this objection would, perhaps, in some degree, fall to the ground. In *their* hands it must be allowed, that novel and surprising, as well as pleasing effects, may be occasionally produced by the practice; but unfortunately almost every inferior performer and amateur aims at the same extent of compass, and unwisely neglects the natural scale and useful compass of the instrument.

Having mentioned CONTRAST as one of the principal requisites in a piece of music, it may here be observed, that *by blending or chequering the ancient and the modern styles in one performance*, the effect of each of them will be improved. A piece of ancient music, in which the harmony chiefly predominates, will certainly be heard with double pleasure by all lovers of harmony, immediately after a modern piece, in which the harmony is subordinate to the melody. In like manner, a good modern piece will seem to have a greater degree of brilliancy, and appear to greater advantage, after one in which classical accuracy is more attended to than general effect. By adhering, therefore, as is so much the present practice, to one particular style, to the total exclusion of the other, the very obvious

obvious advantages of CONTRAST are injudiciously abandoned.

I also cannot help thinking that modern amateurs are far more tenacious of the old style of writing than the composers themselves would have been, had the modern style been introduced in their days.

The modern style of composition was principally brought about by the use of wind instruments, of which the ancients had not experienced the good effects, and were also probably prejudiced against them. The great Scarlatti declared to Hæssle, on the latter desiring to introduce Quant, the flute-player, to him, (as related by Dr. BURNEY, in his *German Tour*) that he *bated* wind instruments, as being *never in tune*. In this assertion he might probably at that period have been right, from the then imperfection of those instruments; but, as great improvements have lately been made by means of additional keys, &c. the objection no longer holds good.

Amongst the first that introduced wind instruments in overtures, concertos, &c. were Handel and Martini, so far they were innovators; string instruments being chiefly used before their time. More modern composers have, however, much improved the mode of introducing them, which is no disparagement to Handel, &c. because it is quite as meritorious for one person successfully to introduce a new system, as it can be for others to improve upon it. Neither can it, I think, be doubted, that had Handel and Martini lived and enjoyed their faculties a few years longer, but that they would themselves in some measure have altered their style, and conformed to that of the modern symphony.

The first composers of these symphonies observed, and with reason, that holding notes or passages in the cantabile style were best calculated for wind instruments, to which they accordingly applied them, leaving difficult passages to be executed by string instruments. In the generality of Handel's overtures the hautboy parts are mere duplicates of those of the violin, without regard to the compass of the instrument, or the difficulty of executing many passages on it. The solo passages in the overtures of Esther and Justin were evidently at first composed as harpsichord passages*.

* The harpsichord and the organ appear indeed, to have been the only instrument Handel perfectly understood, or, at least, ex-

The first inventor of the style of the modern symphony is said to be Richter, whose compositions being more scientific than those of the generality of his immediate successors (the last strains of many of them being short fugues) are therefore more pleasing to *connoisseurs*. Music, however, is capable of being so constructed, as to give pleasure to people *in general*. Perhaps the proper test of excellence in this art should not be, that it affords pleasure to professors and connoisseurs only, but to the greatest number of *amateurs* indiscriminately taken. As we are therefore obliged to Richter for the *invention* of this style, so we are, perhaps, much obliged to others for the *improvement* of it. To Stamitz, the elder, we are indebted for the introduction of the *crescendo* and *diminuendo*, the effects of which are so wonderfully striking in modern music. The *forte*, *piano*, and even *fortissimo* and *pianissimo*, had been long before in use, yet the regular, and almost imperceptible gradation from the one to the other, had not been discovered. That this invention of

celled in the practice of: many of his fiddle passages lie very awkwardly for the hand, and difficult to be taken without frequent and unnatural shiftings. The French horns also, in the fugue of the overture in Sampson, are made to execute the same kind of passages as the violins and tenor, though in the highest and most difficult key for the instrument.

It is said of Handel, that when he sat at the harpsichord in a modern symphony (in the latter part of his life) he used to ridicule the reiterated quavers on the same note in the bass, for several bars together, saying, "Now D is trumps, now A is trumps," &c.—But however unmeaning this repetition of the same notes may appear in themselves, and independent of the variety of harmony that is usually made thereon by the other parts, it cannot possibly be more unmeaning than a long holding note for several bars, which frequently occurs in the ancient music. The fact is, that these reiterated quavers in the bass, and semiquavers in the violin parts, were introduced after wind instruments came into use, and merely for the sake of variety and additional brilliancy. Reiterated semiquavers in the fiddle parts are, therefore, generally accompanied with plain or holding notes in unison in the hautboy parts, and repeated quavers in the bass, by long or holding notes in unison in the horn or bassoon parts; by which means a new effect is introduced, and the wind and string instruments are kept distinct from each other, while each plays in the style peculiar to itself.

Stamitz is universally allowed to be a great improvement, is evident from the fact of almost all his successors availing themselves of it in their compositions, and particularly in the Italian opera. It has also been introduced, and with very great effect, in the last movement but one of Handel's fifth grand concerto, where, immediately after a full close, the violins and basses set off *pianissimo*, and gradually increase to the extreme *fortissimo*. The improvement of this passage by these means is so striking and obvious, that there can be no doubt but Handel would himself have adapted it, had it occurred to him.

Some of the first musical composers that wrote in this new style in England, were Bach and Abel, most of whose compositions were so generally admired. Of these authors, if the works of the former may be said to abound with fire, taste, and brilliancy, those of the latter no less abound with expression, with fine and pleasing (though sometimes abstruse) modulation, and with accuracy of composition. There is however in general so great an uniformity in the style and plan of their symphonies, and so great a sameness in them, that it has been said of them, particularly of Bach's (considering them as opera overtures, or theatrical pieces), that the first or principal movements seem to be calculated for the meridian of the pit, (where the critics generally assemble), the middle strain for that of the boxes (where people of a more refined taste usually sit), and the last strain for that of the galleries.

What has been said of the uniformity of the style of Bach and Abel will perhaps equally apply to the works of most of their contemporaries. It seems therefore probable that, on account of this sameness, the modern style (not having in general that body of harmony and laboured contrivance to support it that the ancient music had) would have degenerated and considerably lost ground had not the great Haydn appeared. The works of this illustrious composer in general abound with so much eccentricity, ingenious modulation, and contrivance, that it is impossible to be prepared for what is to come next, though at the same time he manages to keep to the subject or theme as strictly as any author either ancient or modern. Were the symphonies of HAYDN and his disciple PLEYEL to be published in score, as the works of Corelli and Handel are, perhaps quite as much ingenuity would

be evinced, though in a style totally different. It would appear that the first ten or twelve bars generally contained the ground work or foundation, upon which, by means of ingenious modulation, inversion of harmony, and the addition of such passages as in the progress of the strain naturally arise, the whole of the remainder of the strain (or superstructure) is raised.—It is true that canons, fugues, &c. very rarely occur in their works, but the reason is evident; for since the new effects produced by the modern style of music, they are not so much attended to as they were when air was generally made subservient to figurative counterpoint. It is by no means to be supposed that Haydn is incapable of succeeding in fugues, &c.; on the contrary many of his masses and choral compositions for the church, as well as some of his later sets of quartetts, contain as well contrived fugues, with single, double, and quadruple subjects, both plain and inverted, as are to be met with in the works of any other author.

It must however be confessed, that since these two great masters have been in England, they have, in their symphonies and concertantes written expressly for the concerts at Hanover-square, in a great measure departed from that simplicity which alone is capable of giving *general* pleasure. It is impossible for any ear to receive and clearly distinguish the effect of many parts together, unless assisted by the eye in looking over the score, at least not till after several hearings*. For though single airs, solos, and music of few parts, are apt to lose their effect and become insipid from too frequent repetition, yet music of a complicated kind has quite the contrary effect, as is evinced by those who are much in the habit of attending oratorios, becoming, after a time, tired of the airs, whilst they continued to enjoy the chorusses even more and more.—As therefore the

* Such also doubtless is the reason why the grand chorusses in Handel's oratorios are apt to please less at first than after a few hearings; and they constantly improve in their effects on repetition, as the ear then frequently discovers new beauties or excellences that had before escaped it. It is therefore probable that the principal reason why the chorusses in the Messiah are so much more generally pleasing than those of his other oratorios, arises from the frequency of its performance, in consequence of which its chorusses have become familiar to almost every audience.

complexity of choral music is justified by the *number* of parts necessarily occasioned by a mixture of voices and instruments, which is not the case with mere instrumental music, it seems that a great excellence of the latter should consist in its preserving a due medium between the two extremes; namely, in being neither so very simply and plainly as to be likely soon to pall and grow insipid, nor yet so intricately and complicatedly as to require hearing a number of times before all its excellences can be discovered, or its full effects perceived.

It would therefore be well for the state of music in general, if subsequent composers would adhere at all times to *simplicity*, and not attempt to imitate those very elaborate and extravagant compositions, which were merely designed to exhibit the powers of a modern orchestra, and shew with what wonderful precision such intricate pieces can be performed by a band of all kinds of instruments, of which in their turn the principal of each have some obligato passages to perform.

Having thus considered the different styles of ancient and modern *instrumental* music, it remains for me to observe, that the foregoing remarks will equally apply to *vocal* music, which has also undergone the same kind of revolution as the instrumental. There is full as much difference between a modern opera song (whether English or Italian) and a song of Handel, or of any of his early contemporaries, as between the ancient and modern styles of instrumental music. Each of them also has its peculiar merits and demerits, as if the ancients depended almost wholly upon the voice for the effect, leaving little for the accompaniments besides the bass and the introductory, intermediate and concluding symphonies; the moderns may be said frequently to fall into the opposite extreme, by making the instrumental frequently the principal part of the composition, and the voice part little more than an accompaniment.

Long accompanied recitatives also are much in fashion at present; this is certainly a fine and expressive species of composition, if in a language that is intelligible to the audience; but if unintelligible, the whole effect of the composition will be lost. As therefore this kind of recitative is almost entirely confined to Italian words, its complete

effects must be likewise confined to a small part only of an English audience. Many of the Italian *airs* however it must be confessed, from their beautiful melody or simplicity, or from the brilliancy of their accompaniments, are well calculated to please, independent of the words (which, by the bye, are frequently trifling, insipid, or ridiculous) and are therefore undoubtedly a great addition and improvement to the modern concerts. Here then our former question again forcibly recurs; *why should the vocal parts of a concert consist entirely of Italian, or entirely of English?* From their difference of style they might, with propriety and effect, be contrasted to each other, as I have proved in the preceding remarks upon ancient and modern instrumental music.

Therefore in conclusion I shall observe, that were people in general, instead of bigotedly attaching themselves wholly, either to the ancient or the modern style of instrumental music, or either to the Italian or the English style of vocal music, to introduce and encourage each in its turn; and were the managers of all public subscription concerts to follow the examples of those who have benefits, and availing themselves of every different style of instrumental and vocal music, (arranging the pieces and airs so as to contrast them well to each other) the following good effects would arise.

First, the general complaint of the *length* of our concerts would in a great measure be done away by the variety and contrast arising from the mixture of the two styles, and people in general would be infinitely more pleased than when they are confined to a particular style for the whole evening.

Secondly, the favourite or most pleasing pieces of each author would please much longer, or not become so soon hackneyed, as they necessarily must where only one style is attended to.

And *Thirdly*, people who have been hitherto bigoted to one style, and consequently have avoided hearing the other, will have an opportunity of hearing some of the select pieces of that style against which they have been prejudiced; which, from their contrast with the others (if not from their own intrinsic merit) will perhaps afford them greater pleasure than they expected.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

THE SQUIRE'S TALE.

Imitated from CHAUCER.

WHERE wide the plains of Tartary extend,

And Sarra's towers in glittering pomp ascend,
A monarch reign'd, who made proud Russia yield

Beneath his arm, in many a bloody field :
Cambuscan was the mighty hero's name,
Of yore unrival'd in the list of fame !
In worth unrival'd ; nature never join'd
A form more faultless with a nobler mind.
By fortune plac'd to rule a mighty land,
He bore with dignity his high command ;
Pure was his faith ; wise, merciful, and just,
His word was sacred, honour seal'd his trust :
Invincible his courage ; never knight,
E'en of his race, could boast such strength in fight ;

Around his court such wealth and splendor shone,

As fortune pour'd her gifts on him alone.
This monarch by fair Elfeta his wife
Boasted two valiant sons ; stout Algarfise,
His eldest hope ; next valiant Cambal came ;
A beauteous daughter, Canace by name,
Was youngest of the three ; her praise to speak,

To paint her charms, my language is too weak ;

Those charms which eloquence itself might move

To study beauty, and to sing of love.
My humble muse dares not, with timid wing,
So bold a flight, content 'mid the low vale to sing.

When twenty lingering winters now were flown

Since great Cambuscan wore the regal crown,
With feasts and tournaments, and revels gay,
He hail'd, as he was wont, his natal-day.

Now Phœbus had renew'd his bright career,
And waning March confirm'd the infant year,
Calm was the sky, and through the chequer'd grove

The merry birds renew'd their songs of love,

With wild delight they view'd the tender spray

Cloth'd in fresh green, and felt the sunny ray,

Which seem'd to tell, the snow, and wintry blast,

And all the horrors of the year were past.
High on his throne, repos'd in kingly state,
Adorn'd in royal robes, Cambuscan sat,
This rich and splendid festival to grace
With every solemn rite : the sacred place
In order to describe, my time would fail,
And day be finish'd, ere I clos'd my tale.

'Twere needless here the customs to relate
Of rude magnificence ; the massy plate
Pil'd high and smoking with a monstrous weight

Of flesh or fowl, in foreign lands esteem'd,
Yet here I guess no dainties would be deem'd.

No longer to delay, I haste to tell
What wonders the admiring crowd beset.
Ere yet the feast was ended, while the king
Heard the rapt minstrel strike the sounding string,

Sudden before the hall an armed knight,
High on a brazen steed, advanc'd to fight ;
A dazzling mirror in his hand he bore,
A golden ring upon his finger wore ;
Bright by his side was hung a naked sword ;
Proud thro' the hall he rode, and sought the royal board.

Attention now in every eye appear'd,
And not a murmur from the croud was heard ;

Without a helmet was the knight, his breast
And manly limbs in radiant armour dress'd ;
Such grace his mien, his speech such art betray'd,

So high respect the royal pair he paid,
And all the nobles as by ranks they sat
Along the splendid hall in princely state :
Had Gawen bade the bowers of bliss adieu
On earth this solemn festival to view,
E'en Gawen must have own'd no art could teach

More faultless action, or more pleasing speech :
Each courtesy perform'd, before the throne
He stood, and thus with manly voice made known

The purport of his message.---“ He who
“ reigns

“ In sovereign grandeur o'er the boundless
“ plains

“ Of Indus and Arabia, to display
“ His sacred friendship, on this solemn day,

“ Commanded me, your humblest slave, to
“ bring

“ These matchless presents, worthy of a
“ king :

“ And first this brazen horse, whose speed
“ can trace,

“ Safe and with ease, within a day's short
“ space,

“ The outstretch'd earth ; o'er barren de-
“ serts fly,

“ Or through the pathless regions of the sky ;
“ Unhurt mid' storms and tempest, you shall

“ gain
“ The eagle's tow'ring height, or smoothly

“ skim the plain.

“ Turn but a pin, where'er you list to go,
“ The conscious steed his destin'd course

“ shall know ;
“ And whether on his back you wake or

“ sleep,
“ Unalter'd still his first position keep.

“ The artist vers'd in magic long survey'd
“ Each heav'nly constellation ere he made

“ The wondrous fabric, though he knew
“ each art

“ Great Nature's hidden mysteries impart.
“ Within

" Within this polish'd mirror you may see
 " Events yet veil'd in dark futurity;
 " When gathering evils threaten to o'er-
 "whelm
 " Your private peace, or discord shake your
 "realm;
 " Here, undisguis'd by art, you may discern
 " Your friends and foes: or ladies fair may
 "learn,
 " If still the favour'd lover's faith be true,
 " If false, his wiles, and secret treason view;
 " Behold to whom his flattering vows are
 "made,
 " By magic here in lively tints display'd.
 " This matchless mirror, with this golden
 "ring,
 " A present for the merry months of
 "spring,
 " To your fair daughter Canace I bring.
 " Such knowledge does this magic ring
 "convey,
 " That she who owns it, whether she display
 " Or bear it in her purse, shall read aright
 " The voice of every bird that wings its
 "flight
 " Beneath the expanse of heav'n; his notes
 "explain,
 " And in his language answer him again.
 " Instinctively shall learn the name and
 "worth
 " Of every plant that clothes the fruitful
 "earth;
 " And know to cull from Nature's secret
 "store
 " The choicest herbs, whose medicinal
 "power
 " Can cure the deepest wounds, at once
 "subdue
 " The force of fell disease, and life and
 "health renew.
 " This naked sword which glitters at my side
 " Such secret virtue boasts, it can divide
 " The strongest armour with a single
 "stroke,
 " Though forg'd far thicker than the
 "stoutest oak,
 " Nor strength, nor skill, escape the dire-
 "ful shock;
 " And those who chance it's fatal edge to
 "feel
 " No drugs can ease, no magic art can heal,
 " Till o'er the wound (though ne'er so deep
 "and wide)
 " The flat smooth blade, with soothing hand
 "apply'd,
 " You deign to draw; at once thro' every
 "vein
 " The blood shall staunch, and not a scar
 "remain."
 When thus the stranger knight his tale had
 told,
 He turn'd his steed that shone like burnish'd
 gold
 Bright glistening in the sun, his way re-
 trac'd
 Along the splendid hall, and came at last

Into a spacious court; there lighting down
 He left his horse, immovable as stone.
 A courtly train receive him from his steed,
 And to a richly furnish'd chamber lead;
 Rid of his cumb'rous arms; and serve the
 feast,
 For splendor worthy of a princely guest:
 Then the bright mirror and enchanted sword
 Apart within a lofty turret stor'd,
 Where lay the royal treasure:—next the ring
 To beauteous Canace in state they bring;
 They next essay the brazen steed to move,
 But far too weak their strongest engines
 prove
 To heave the pond'rous weight—they strive
 in vain,
 His glowing hoofs seem rooted to the plain;
 Yet, by the knight untaught, the secret
 power
 To guide at will, they gave their efforts o'er,
 And wait his wish'd arrival, to unfold
 What in the sequel of my tale is told.
 Now gathering in a throng the gazing croud
 Surround the house; inquisitive and loud
 His mighty form they point by point explore,
 And count (to shew their skill) his beauties
 o'er:
 Some prais'd his height and strength, and
 swore the steed
 Resembled much the stately Lombard breed;
 While others in his sprightly eye can trace
 A likeness of the fleet Apulian race;
 Yet all agreed he pleas'd them passing well,
 Nor happiest Nature could such art excel.
 But much it puzzled the admiring throng
 To find how sense and motion could belong
 To sluggish metal; some among them thought
 That magic art the strange effect had wrought,
 Some one opinion, some another binds;
 As many men, 'tis said, have many minds.
 Then like a swarm of bees they fill the air
 With busy murmurs; sagely some declare,
 They'd heard the like in ancient story told;
 Relating then how Pegasus of old.
 Although a horse, with outstretch'd wings
 could fly
 Through the vast regions of the vaulted sky.
 Then speaking of the mighty Trojan horse,
 Whose dark and hollow womb contain'd the
 force
 Which lurk'd perfidious, plotting to destroy,
 And level with the dust, the tow'rs of Troy.
 Quoth one, " My heart misgives me;
 "much I fear
 " Some secret mischief may inhabit here,
 " Perhaps *this* steed an armed force may
 "bear,
 " Prepar'd to issue forth and burn the town;
 " I think 'twere fit it's real use were
 "known."
 Another smiling, to his neighbour cries,
 " How oft suspicion makes us dream of lies;
 " I deem this huge machine, by magic
 "wrought
 " To grace this solemn feast, and hither
 "brought
 " To

"To entertain the court:" thus none agreed,
But doubts, and fears, and scoffs, by turns
succeed;

Though most concluded, as the vulgar will,
Who treat on subjects far beyond their skill,
And find out meanings which were never
meant,

The horse was fashion'd for no good intent.
Some wonder'd at the mirror's magic pow'r,
Now plac'd with care within the topmost
tow'r,

'Twas strange, they cry'd (perhaps more
strange than true),

That men such objects in a glass could view;
While others answer'd, such effects might rise
From nat'ral causes, which deceiv'd their
eyes

By side reflection angles multiply'd;
Then nam'd a dozen learned terms beside.
Said, that at Rome one might it's fellow view,
And vouch'd an hundred wond'rous stories
true,

Told by old sages, who have long been dead,
Whose tedious works they boasted to have
read.

Another set with equal skill explor'd
The matchless temper of the magic sword,
And told how nearly Telephus was slain
By the same spear that heal'd his wounds
again!

Achilles' spear—which like the enchanted
blade

Could cure the mischief that itself had made:
Then argu'd of the various methods us'd
In hard'ning metals; and of drugs infus'd
Into the mass, which could pervade the steel,
And give the point or blade the pow'r to heal.
And now the subject changing, they confer'd
About the wond'rous ring; none ever heard
Such virtues center'd in a ring before,
Except in that which Moses own'd of yore,
And the fam'd seal which Solomon once
wore.

Thus saying they withdrew; though as they
went,

The vulgar seeking still new argument,
Wonder'd how glass from ashes could be made,
For glass and ashes were unlike they said;
But yet they saw it, therefore thought it true;
Thus idiot-wonder still finds matter new:
The cause of mist, why ocean ebbs and flows,
And doubts and puzzles, till it thinks it
knows.

But now the sun's meridian height was past,
And his clear orb a milder radiance cast
O'er all the scene; the splendid feast is done,
And great Cambuscan rises from his throne:
At once the minstrels swell a solemn strain,
And through the hall proceeds the princely
train,

In stately march; their monarch they attend
Through richly furnish'd rooms, and now
ascend

The sacred chamber; still the minstrels' notes
In solemn concert through the palace floats;
A thousand instruments their efforts join,
Now pause, then mingling in one strain
combine;

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At length loud pealing swell the choral song,
And pour the deep full tide of harmony along;
To hear--the rage of phrenzy might controul
And lift to heav'n the yet embody'd soul.

Now drawn in trim array the youth advance,
The fair to summon to the sprightly dance;
The stranger knight, prefer'd before them all,
With beauteous Canace began the ball.

The masking to recite, and revels gay,
Which wore in mirth the fleeting hours away;
The dances mazy figure to explain,
The face of beauty striving oft in vain
To hide the wishes of the beating heart,
Which still too plain her speaking eyes impart;
The conscious smile, the sigh but half con-
ceal'd,

The tongue denying what that sigh reveal'd:
The trembling hand, the whisper soft and low,
The blush and every symptom lovers know:
Would ask a gallant, brisk and debonair,
Vers'd in love's wiles, devoted to the fair,
And free and open as the passing air;
Like brave sir Launcelot who liv'd of yore,
He might have told you—I shall say no more,
But leave amid their mirth the jocund train
Till supper summon'd to the feast again.
Still day-light smil'd; the plenteous board
was crown'd

With costly fare, and pleasure hov'ring round
Smil'd in each face; their supper at an end,
The king and all his thronging court descend;
And lords and ladies in a troop proceed,
To gaze with wonder on the brazen steed:
Not e'en the famous Trojan horse of yore,
Drew greater crowds or won their praises more.
The monarch now commands the stranger
knight

The virtues of his courser to recite,
And teach the secret method how to guide:
The knight advancing to the rein apply'd
His skilful hand, the steed with active bound
Began to spring, and rear, and paw the ground:
When thus the knight:—"Whene'er you
" would ascend

" This wondrous steed, these secret hints
" attend;

" First name whatever course you wish to
" steer,

" Then turn a pin conceal'd within his ear;
" And when you near approach the destin'd
" land,

" Bid him descend, and with a skilful hand
" Screw round this other pin—his rapid
" flight

" At once he'll stay—and on the ground
" alight,

" And there immovable he'll still re-
" main;

" The strength of all the world would
" strive in vain

" To draw him thence, or lift him from
" the plain:

" But should you wish him from his place
" to go,

" Turn this, he'll vanish; none shall ever
" know

" The manner of his flight: again demand
" His presence, in a moment he's at hand.

6 L

" Taught

" Taught by my skill, wherever you shall
 " fray,
 " Give but a call, and he'll at once obey."
 When thus the knight his secret tale made
 known,
 Happy to call so choice a gift his own,
 The mighty monarch thank'd his courteous
 guest,
 Then to the palace went to renovate the feast;
 The massy bridle to the tow'r they bear,
 The horse then vanish'd—but I know not
 where;
 And so I take my leave of all the train
 Who hasten to the festal scene again,
 And pass the night in sports and revels gay,
 Till the faint blushing dawn proclaim'd re-
 turning day.

PART THE SECOND.

Now sleep on downy pinions hov'ring nigh,
 Sheds her soft influence o'er each weary eye;
 And one by one, with sportive toil oppress'd,
 Slowly retiring, yield to welcome rest.
 I shall not tell their dreams, by fancy bred,
 The sickly phantoms of a throbbing head,
 Which lost mid wine, and love, and mirth,
 and noise,
 Broods o'er the pleasures no more enjoys.
 The greater part, o'erwhelm'd in slumbers lie,
 Till the bright sun had gain'd the middle sky.
 But Canace, who bade her fire adieu,
 And soon at eve to grateful rest withdrew,
 Awoke at early dawn; she deem'd it wrong,
 For young and modest virgins to prolong
 Their revels through the night; next day
 to dread
 The faded cheek, tir'd limbs, and aching head.
 The ring and mirror form her only joy,
 And every care, and every wish employ:
 Such bright transporting hopes these presents
 yield,
 She views each wonder in her dreams re-
 veal'd;
 Her colour comes and goes, her pulse beats
 high,
 So much she burns their magic power to try.
 Soon as the sun illum'd the eastern skies,
 Gay as the lark, she hasten'd to arise,
 And call'd her sleepy nurse; whose heavy head
 Inclined to doze another hour in bed—
 " Why wish thus early, madam, to be dress'd?"
 She cries, " while yet the slumbering
 " world's at rest."
 " I can no longer sleep," reply'd the fair,
 " And fain would breathe the fragrant
 " morning air."
 The nurse now wak'd her train; the dam-
 sels all
 Arise at once, obedient to her call:
 Their beauteous mistresses they in haste array,
 More fresh and fragrant than the new-born
 day:
 And forth she came, with light though
 stately pace,
 Bright as the sun, who now began his race:
 The duteous train her devious steps attend,
 And through the dewy park their way they
 head,

The rolling mist that o'er the meadow spread,
 Veil'd the broad sun in deeply blushing red:
 Yet the fresh morning air, the blooming scene,
 The dew-drops sparkling o'er each tender
 green,

The chorus of wild birds that round them sing,
 And gayly chaunt the praises of the spring,
 Excite a secret joy in every heart;
 Yet most in Canace's, whom magic art
 Had taught at once their language to explain,
 And know the meaning of each warbled strain.
 But when we spin the tedious story's thread,
 Till curiosity itself be dead,
 We lose our pains; so briefly I shall tell,
 What in the sequel of their walk befel.
 As Canace, engag'd in careless play,
 Now cull'd fresh flowers, and now pursu'd
 her way,

She saw, upon a lone and blasted tree,
 Whose " top was bald with dry antiquity,"
 A falcon perch'd; her shrill and mournful cry
 Made the deep woods and distant groves reply,
 And oft' with furious beak her breast she tore,
 And with her wings assail'd, till spouting gore
 Ran from the wither'd branch on which she
 stood,
 And underneath, the ground was dy'd with
 blood:

So moving her complaint; the hardest heart
 Might learn, in grief like hers, to bear a part:
 E'en the fell savage might her woes deplore,
 And eyes might weep, which never wept
 before.

No falconer e'er view'd a bird so fair,
 Her form, and plumage, far beyond compare;
 She seem'd a falcon of the gentlest sort,
 From foreign hands procur'd to train for sport:
 And now she grew so faint from loss of blood,
 She scarce could hold the bough on which
 she stood.

Fair Canace, who on her finger wore
 The magic ring, and heard the hawk deplore
 Her mournful fate, and view'd her hapless
 plight,

Had almost swoon'd with terror at the sight;
 And drawing near the tree with fearful haste,
 On the sad bird a look of pity cast,
 And held her lap, with anxious care below,
 Lest she should tumble headlong from the
 bough:

Thus Canace awhile expecting stood,
 And gaz'd upon the hawk besmear'd with
 blood.

At length the beauteous maid the silence broke
 And thus in pity's tenderest accents spoke.

" If your sad tale may reach a stranger's ear,
 " Repose the burden of your sorrows here:
 " Ah! sure that breaking heart has known to
 " prove

" The death of friendship, or the loss of love;
 " For these alone deny the mind relief,
 " And call despair to end the scene of grief;
 " No other cause your bosom could inspire
 " Against yourself to wreak your cruel ire;
 " For the dear love of heav'n, your rage re-
 " strain,

" Accept my help, nor let me plead in vain.
 " 'Mong

" 'Mong birds, or beasts, I never view'd
 " before,
 " A sight so dreadful; madly wound no more
 " That mangled body;—from the tree de-
 " scend,
 " And meet in me a kind and pow'rful friend,
 " As I'm the daughter of a king, I swear,
 " If you'll the story of your woes declare,
 " Those sorrows to assuage, by every aid,
 " And heal the wounds your frantic rage
 " has made!"

She ceas'd—the falcon made her no reply,
 But beat her sides, and gave a piercing cry,
 And fainting, fell to earth; all sense was fled,
 And the surrounding damsels thought her
 dead.

But Canace the fainting bird sustain'd
 Within her arms, 'till hovering life regain'd
 It's wonted seat; at length, in accents weak,
 And language, such as hawks are us'd to
 speak,

The falcon thus her mournful tale began.

" Compassion's gentle tide, in bird or man,
 " Alone can issue from a gen'rous heart,
 " My Canace!—to feel another's smart,
 " To sooth despair, to aid distress like mine,
 " Demands a bosom, soft and pure as thine.
 " When nature form'd you beauteous, she
 " design'd

" So fair a mansion for as fair a mind.

" Tho' all my hopes of peace on earth are o'er,
 " And fancy paints her fairy scenes no more
 " Of bright returning joy; if my sad tale
 " May yield instruction, and can aught avail
 " In warning others those deceits to shun
 " By which my unsuspecting youth was
 " won,

" To tempt my fate to love, and be un-
 " done,

" I shall, while time permits, at large dis-
 " close

" The mournful origin of all my woes,
 " Upon a lonely summit's craggy breast
 " My careful parents built their spacious nest;
 " And there (in hapless hour) with joy they
 " view'd,

" Burst from the pregnant shell their infant
 " brood;

" So tenderly they nurs'd, so fondly bred,
 " Our youthful days in every pleasure fled:
 " Ah! then unus'd amid the world to roam,
 " I deem'd each scene as happy as my home!
 " On the same rock a falcon chanc'd to dwell,
 " Who seem'd in every virtue to excel;
 " Beauteous and gentle, but too oft we find
 " A flatt'ring form conceals a sordid mind:
 " So he, beneath the mask of modest youth,
 " Of prompt goodnature, and unerring truth,
 " O'erveil'd the deepest guilt; the human
 " heart

" Was never vers'd in more consummate art.
 " Thus the fell serpent lurks in flow'rs con-
 " ceal'd,

" Till by his deadly bite too late reveal'd.
 " The hypocrite so well his passion feign'd,
 " And practis'd every rite by love ordain'd;
 " By such obedience, such devotion strove
 " To gain my approbation of his love;

" None, but the fire of falsehood could have
 " known

" To penetrate disguise, so like his own:
 " Thus o'er the tomb do sculptur'd marbles
 " shine,

" While all is dark, corrupt, and foul within.
 " When many a year his tender suit he'd
 " feign'd,

" And of dildain and cruelty complain'd,
 " Too simple to suspect the tear and sigh,
 " I thought in earnest that his death was
 " nigh;

" And sway'd by pity, listen'd to his tale,
 " And let at length his flattering vows pre-
 " vail;

" Yet first demanded, he'd preserve unstain'd
 " My fame, and honour, and while life re-
 " main'd

" Swear that he'd never from his faith depart,
 " But render love for love, and heart for heart.
 " Alas! how slightly does a promise bind

" Through long revolving time the firmest
 " mind.

" When he perceiv'd his am'rous suit had
 " gain'd

" A fond return, no falcon ever feign'd
 " More fervent passion; vers'd in deep deceit,
 " He breath'd a thousand raptures at my
 " feet;

" Such tender love, and endless truth he
 " swore,

" None e'er dissembled with such art before.
 " Not Trojan Paris; nor the prince of Greece,
 " Who wander'd far to gain the golden fleece;

" Nor any since old Lamech, who began
 " To match two women to a single man.
 " So noble his address, such easy grace

" In ev'ry look and action you might trace:
 " His ready wit, his captivating smile,
 " Might well the wisest of our sex beguile:

" So much did all his arts my bosom move,
 " I only study'd to return his love:

" His truth I deem'd so great, my foolish
 " heart

" Bore in his griefs a more than equal part;
 " Did he but sigh, or feel the slightest pain,
 " My aching bosom throbb'd in every vein;

" His will was mine; each moment to em-
 " ploy

" In pleasing him, became my only joy:
 " The voice of heav'n alone could then have
 " mov'd

" My mind to censure what his choice ap-
 " prov'd.

" Thus smiling love his dearest blessings
 " shed,

" And two short years in mutual transport
 " fled;

" While judging from his fond behaviour
 " past,

" I vainly thought the flatt'ring scene would
 " last;

" But fickle fortune destin'd me to prove,
 " As well the torments, as delights of love.

" My lover feign'd that he must leave his
 " home,

" Constrain'd by fate, in foreign realms to
 " roam:

" You need not ask what terrors seiz'd my
 " heart,
 " But guess those feelings words can ne'er
 " impart:
 " Alas! the sport of cruel destiny,
 " I felt the pangs of death, though yet forbid
 " to die.
 " At length, one fatal day he took his leave;
 " While I, who heard him speak, and saw
 " him grieve
 " At his departure, thought his tears as true
 " As those which almost chok'd my last
 " adieu!
 " But since his honour summon'd him away,
 " And reason told me, that he must obey
 " Her potent call; that sorrow was in vain,
 " And he wou'd soon review his home again;
 " I strove my swelling anguish to conceal,
 " And feign'd a courage which I did not feel,
 " And fondly press'd his hand, repeating o'er
 " Those vows of truth I oft had sworn be-
 " fore.
 " What he reply'd I shall not now rehearse;
 " In speech none better, or in action worse.
 " So forth he flew, and hasten'd on his way,
 " Till weariness, or *pleasure*, bade him stay
 " His rapid course; for sure he bore in mind,
 " The proverb, 'every creature loves its
 " kind.'
 " Thus men have written, men too prone to
 " range,
 " And vary merely for the love of change.
 " As silly birds, with care in cages bred,
 " Lodg'd on soft down, with choicest viands
 " fed,
 " Which seem your proffer'd kindness to dis-
 " dain,
 " While sugar, bread, and milk, allure in
 " vain;
 " If they by chance espy an open door,
 " O'rtum their cup upon the sanded floor,
 " Leave their warm cage, and hasten to the
 " wood,
 " To feed on worms, and such like homely
 " food;
 " And pleas'd with change of fare, delighted
 " roam,
 " Forgetful of their breeding and their
 " home.
 " E'en so this falcon, though of gentle
 " kind,
 " In manner graceful, and in sense refin'd;
 " Debas'd by vice, forsakes my nest, to share
 " His love among the commoners of air;

" And now a hateful kite his fancy charms,
 " And for her loath'd embrace he flights
 " these arms;
 " His plighted faith—his love from me is
 " flown,
 " And I am left to weep, and die alone."
 With that, again she rais'd her mournful cries;
 Again she swooning fell, and clos'd her
 streaming eyes.
 As Canace in her soft bosom laid,
 The mournful damsels gath'ring round, sur-
 vey'd
 Her wretched plight, and with endearments
 strove
 To sooth the grief they knew not to remove.
 But Canace with gentlest care sustain'd
 The unhappy bird, until she now regain'd
 The palace gate; prepar'd to plaister o'er
 Her ghastly wounds, and staunch the
 oozing gore,
 Where'er her tortur'd flesh with furious
 beak she tore.
 Now the fair princess made it all her care
 From herbs and roots a medicine to prepare,
 To heal her patient's wounds; from morn-
 till night
 This pleasing labour form'd her sole delight.
 Within her chamber she contriv'd a mew,
 And lin'd with velvet of unchanging blue,
 Denoting female truth; without was seen,
 Display'd with art, upon a ground of green,
 Of titmice, hawks, and owls, a num'rous train,
 Who vows of truth and constancy disdain:
 With pies surrounded, to proclaim aloud
 Their acts of folly to the list'ning crowd.
 And thus I leave fair Canace, to heal
 The wounded falcon, nor shall more reveal
 About the magic king, till I explain
 How the said hawk obtain'd her love again,
 Assisted in the task by Cambal bold;
 As in the sequel of my tale is told.
 But now I turn, adventures to recite,
 Ne'er heard before, and many a bloody fight.
 Yet first, I sing Cambuscan's high renown,
 And many a city by his arms o'erthrown.
 Then the exploits of valiant Algarfise,
 Who won fair Theodora to his wife;
 For whose dear love he many a peril brav'd,
 Oft by the brazen steed from slaughter sav'd.
 Next shall I speak of Cambal, who, to gain
 Fair Canace's release, upon the plain
 O'ercame two brethren, who in arms had
 strove
 To seize the princess, and to force her love.



